Organisational Management T-kit

Welcome to the T-Kit series

Some of you may have wondered: what does T-kit mean? We can offer at least two answers. The first is as simple as the full version in English: "Training Kit". The second has more to do with the sound of the word that may easily recall "Ticket", one of the travelling documents we usually need to go on a journey. So, on the cover, the little figure called "Spiffy" holds a train ticket to go on a journey to discover new ideas. In our imagination, this T-kit is a tool that each of us can use in our work. More specifically, we would like to address youth workers and trainers and offer them theoretical and practical tools to work with and use when training young people.

The T-kit series has been the result of a one-year collective effort involving people from different cultural, professional and organisational backgrounds. Youth trainers, youth leaders in NGOs and professional writers have worked together in order to create high quality publications which would address the needs of the target group while recognising the diversity of approaches across Europe to each subject.

This T-kit is part of a series of 4 titles first published in the year 2000, to be followed by more in subsequent years. It is one of the products of the Partnership Programme on Youth Worker Training run by the European Commission and the Council of Europe. Besides the T-kits, the partnership between the two institutions has resulted in other areas of co-operation such as training courses, the magazine "Coyote" and a dynamic internet site.

To find out more about developments in the partnership (new publications, training course announcements, etc.) or to download the electronic version of the T-kits, visit the Partnership web site: www.training-youth.net.

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Introduction

This T-kit seeks to encourage the development of well managed youth organisations across Europe through the provision of a theoretical foundation and practical application of organisational management techniques.

It has been produced with the aim to serve:

- Trainers and multipliers in the field of organisational management
- "Managers" (i.e. Secretary Generals, International Co-ordinators, Executives, Presidents, etc.) of small and medium sized non-governmental youth organisations.

Both the words 'managers' and 'management' may seem sometimes a bit alien to the jargon used in youth organisations. However we would like to emphasise that management is not only a business practise, any volunteer organising a day trip is managing time, people and resources. So it is important that individuals identify themselves with the concept of management.

This T-kit does not attempt to offer the solution to all youth organisation's problems. In the same way that organisations and individuals are unique, solutions are too. So there are not miraculous recipes, however we offer techniques and methods that can be adapted to your organisation's reality and help it to improve its quality.

A publication of this size does not have enough space to cover in depth all the topics related to organisational management. For this reason the authors have had to be selective in their choice of topics developed. The selection of topics for this T-Kit and their grouping into 4 chapters is the result of great discussion amongst the authors who themselves bring wide experience of managing and management theory. Other T-kits are planned for the future on specialised themes such us fund-raising, and a complementary bibliography is offered on different topics in this publication.

The T-kit is divided in four main sections which can be read independently and which also are interconnected; thus demonstrating the holistic approach to managing organisations. Each section includes some theoretical background, analysis and specific exercises to assist trainers in their work.

Chapter 1 describes organisations as systems related to the external environment and able to develop a specific internal environment called culture. The use of the word "environment" is intentional as it is intended to help those involved in management to consider first the context of youth organisations and their role in today's society.

Chapters 2 and 3 are devoted to people, the organisation's greatest resource: Chapter 2 is about management of self – an essential precursor to managing others. It covers the discovery of one's potential as manager and leader and understanding how we learn. It also considers the importance of relationships in management.

Chapter 3 is about management of people. Management is not seen as the controlling factor in organisations but rather a function focussed on the mission of the organisation. Management enables the purpose to be defined and fulfilled by adapting to change and by maintaining a balance between the various, and frequently conflicting, pressures of work.

Chapter 4 goes into the management of process or the "non human resources" within and outside the organisation. Processes are treated as dynamic elements within the life of an organisation – continually changing, responding and developing.

The word organisation comes from the Greek word organon which means tool or instrument. The information that the following chapters contain will hopefully help youth organisations to be effective as tools to meet the needs of young people across Europe.

We hope you will enjoy reading this T-kit.

1. Environment: The context and culture of European Youth Organisations

1.1 Introduction

There are many terms used to name and define youth organisations but most of them do not seem to be broad enough to include their full variety. In fact definitions seem to constrain this diversity, which actually is one of the most prominent characteristics of youth organisations. However it could be interesting to review the contents of some of those definitions, as most of them emphasise key aspects which will help us to identify the place youth organisations have in society and the role they play.

a) They are often volunteer organisations: although some might have paid staff, the higher decision making bodies (governance) are formed by volunteers.

b) They are non-profit organisations: which does not mean that they cannot have economic profit, it means that any profit will be invested in activities which will contribute to the accomplishment of their mission.

c) They are non-governmental organisations, which means they are not part of the public administration, however this does not mean they cannot be supported (e.g. financially) by it.[1]

d) They are youth organisations: they are a group of people who come together in order to achieve a shared value, with a common structure and organisation. Young people play a prominent role in a least one of the following elements:

- Young people are responsible for the running of the organisation. That means that they are not necessarily the beneficiaries. Those could be cultural heritage, the environment or elderly people.
- Young people are the beneficiaries of the organisation's activities. However the organisation's activities maybe organised by adults.

Suggestions for training

One could think that obviously all those involved in a youth organisation shared the same knowledge and opinion about it, but in many cases this can be far from true. This first exercise should provide the group with the opportunity to discuss the different ideas each of them have about the organisation. As a result the group will establish some common understanding and vocabulary about the organisation; one which is shared by everybody.

- Ask the group to review the above definitions and discuss the characteristics their organisations fulfil and in which ways. After that they should be encouraged to find different characteristics which might be more specific to their organisation.
- To help the group to consider all important aspects the following list can be distributed to help with the discussion, making sure participants relate them to their organisation.

  – Objectives
  – How long established
  – Level of formalisation
  – Internal structure
  – Field of action
  – Target group
  – Geographical importance
  – Continuity of activities
  – Type of activities
  – Relations with other organisations

1 a, b and c from Domenech, Alfred Vernis et al. (1998)

If we could compare the different definitions and roles of youth organisations across Europe it would be easy to realise that there are great differences in opinion from one country to another. This not only influences a great deal the role they play in society but also the way they can play it. It is important to be aware of the different scenarios in which youth organisations work in Europe, as all those differences have an impact in how they can be managed.

These questions do not have just one right answer, the task is for the group to decide which situation they are immersed in.

Another influence comes from the fact that youth organisations do not exist in the vacuum. They "live" in a specific environment which has an influence on them. For this reason youth organisations need to be constantly updated about the developments in their environment, so changes will not take them by surprise or pass unnoticed. For example a new public provision of a certain service might put an end to the problem the youth organisation is trying to solve with its work, failure to anticipate that and to act inline with it will mean that the purpose of the organisation does not exist anymore and sooner or later it will have to dissolve or re-invent itself. For instance a greater sensitivity to a certain issue, which could be the central work of the youth organisation, might open new opportunities for it

What we would like to stress here as a key issue for those in management positions in youth organisations is that they need to be able

Suggestions for training

- Once there is agreement regarding the main characteristics that define a youth organisation, we should move one step forward and find out about the role the organisation has in society. The following questions may help participants develop their understanding:

– are youth organisations creating a space or filling a gap?

– are they carrying out some work that should be done by governments? or are they giving answers and alternatives to particular problems that affect our societies and young people in particular?

– which is the real contribution on awareness raising and defence of rights performed by youth organisations?

– are there any other actors in society developing this work already? If so, is it done in the same way? or where are the differences?

– do youth organisations offer opportunities for young people to have an active role in society?

– why is it that some people volunteer and others don't?

– is voluntary work a fashion that will die out or is it a genuine way of participation for young people?

– do youth organisations promote and practice values and attitudes that are important for society?

– are youth organisations representative of young people in Europe or do they only represent a minority of people who participate in them? Can therefore youth organisations be considered true speakers for young people or are they not entitled to play that role?

to read the reality which surrounds them as the only way to be proactive and to develop the organisation in line with the present and future needs of society.

1.2 The historical context

Once we know where we are, it is important to know how we arrived here. Many of the current aspects and practices of organisations have their roots in their own history. For this reason they have to be known and understood by at least the people involved in managing practices within the organisation. Sometimes a certain way of doing things might not be easy to understand without the historical background and this might have an effect on how new volunteers see the work in the organisation. The fact that something has always been done in a certain way is not a guarantee of quality, so we should analyse this if we are to improve our organisations.

Before we can start any planning; before questioning why things work or don't work in the organisation; before any decision can be made, managers need to spend some time understanding their own organisation. The lessons of history can be incorporated into the common knowledge and be used for future planning.

It was mentioned at the beginning of this section that what a youth organisation is now has

Suggestions for training

- Gather information about the organisation's history by producing an "Identity card" for the organisation. This exercise guarantees that all people involved in management have the same background knowledge about the organisation. The ID card should include at least the following information:

Name of organisation

Field of action

Date of foundation

Number of members

Structure

In chronological order list key events is the life of the organisation

In chronological order list key events outside the organisation that had an influence on it.

Lessons from history: Keys to stability and growth (internal & external)

Lessons from history: Recurring themes that show causes for instability

Outside perceptions of the organisation

Participants should be asked at the beginning to be as objective as possible, especially with the last three questions. The likely subjectivity of answers to these three in particular needs to be taken into account.

its roots in its own historical development. We have looked into that with the previous exercise, it is time now to come back to present times and start studying in a more detailed way our organisation today. Now we propose to look into the organisation's current programmes and related infrastructure. The way of doing so could be by preparing an organisational profile. The following three steps show how to do it.

Step 1: List all specific programme activities and services i.e. counselling and support, housing, information, speaking engagements at corporations, public policy updates, etc. Note current levels of activity and scale of current programmes including, for example, data such as number of clients served, cost per unit of service, geographic locations serviced etc.

Step 2: group these programme activities and services according to common outcomes, categories, similar services, or the like. Think of these groupings as goals.

Step 3: Prepare an infrastructure profile. This will include information on basic management and operation functions that support the current programme, such as personnel management, fund-raising, marketing, facilities and financial management and the board of directors.

This information will include current paid and volunteer staffing levels for all programmes and for the entire organisation, as well as the size of the board of directors.

Also briefly summarise sources and use of funds, analysis of financial condition, and other related organisational management data. Charts and diagrams are useful visual to help present the data. [2]

So far we have worked on the concept of organisation: first we tried to decide what a youth organisation is, then we considered its role in contemporary European society, and thirdly we have focused on discovering some key aspects of our own organisations.

So, the first term in the title of the next section now seems clear but what about the second one?

1.3 Organisational culture

1.3.1 What is culture?

There are many definitions for this word. The Longman dictionary of contemporary English defines culture as "the customs, beliefs, art, music, and all other products of human thought made by a particular group of people at a particular time".

Very frequently culture is just related to folk or art. However if we look at the concept in a broader way we may recognise some other elements such as sense of humour, gastronomy or even family relationships. If we try to explain it in a very simple way maybe we could say that culture is a particular way a group of people has of doing things.

And there the analogy is not difficult; youth organisations are groups of people who perform certain tasks in a specific way.

The problem here is that some of the elements that we might consider part of culture are not as obvious as some others. The following diagram suggests that in fact only one tenth of cultural components are obvious or, 90% of culture is subconscious. Culture in this sense is seen as an iceberg where only part of it can be seen but obviously all of it has to be taken into consideration.

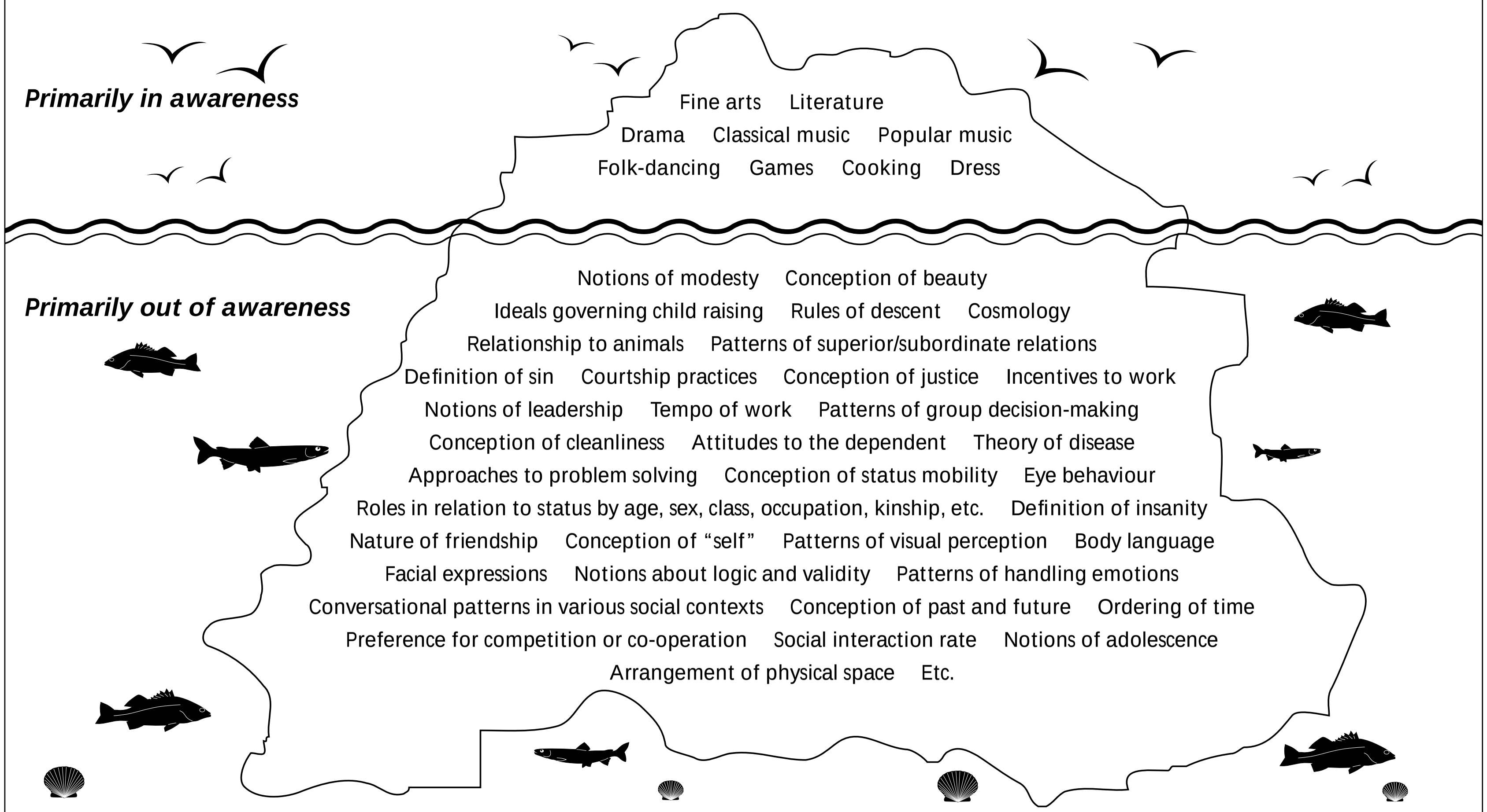
Now that we are about to involve ourselves in studying the culture of our organisation we need to be cautious. It is important to always keep in mind that we must look beyond the obvious, otherwise we will miss 9/10 of the elements which form our culture.

Many authors have written about organisational cultures; identifying certain patterns of behaviour in which most organisations could easily identify themselves.

There are aspects of culture that are very relevant if we are to manage an organisation. We have to take into consideration that each culture reacts in a different way to the same

2 Michael Allison and Jude Kaye (1997)

Fig. OM-1: The iceberg concept of culture



Source: AFS Orientation Handbook (1984) vol. IV, p.14 issue, and equally important, we have to consider that individuals can fit or not in a certain culture. This latter observation has clear implications for groups of people who come together to achieve a common purpose.

Suggestions for training

Use the following definitions of organisational culture to stimulate debate. What definitions would group members prefer to use?

- Trompenaars ".... the essence of culture is not what is visible on the surface. It is the shared ways groups of people understand and interpret the world."
- Morgan gives different definitions: "When we talk about culture we are typically referring to the pattern of development reflected in a society's system of knowledge, ideology, values, laws and day-to-day rituals".
- Wilkins defined it as "the taken for granted and shared meanings that people assign to their social understandings"
- Ouchi and Jackson have quite a straight forward definition "how things are done around here"

He also says that "Organisations are mini-societies that have their own distinctive patterns of culture and subculture. Such patterns of belief or shared meaning... can exert a decisive influence on the overall ability of the organisation to deal with the challenges it faces."

The authors of this T-kit feel that the last definition matches with their concept of culture for youth organisations. It is a straight forward and practical definition which we hope will help those involved in organisations to understand the culture of the body to which they belong.

1.3.2 Organisational styles

Now that we have in mind what we mean by organisational culture we are ready to analyse some of the basic organisational "styles" as Charles Handy names them. These descriptions will help us to identify the culture of our organisation which in turn will help us answer the following questions:

– why are things done in a certain way in our organisation?
– what are the advantages and disadvantages of doing things in this way?
– depending on their own personality why people fit or don't fit in our organisation?

The answers to all these questions are an essential base if we as managers are looking for new ways to develop our organisations.

The following description is a summary based on Handy's classification of four main categories of organisational cultures:

The Club Culture

The spider's web is the best image to describe the organisation as the key to the whole organisation sits in the centre, surrounded by ever widening circles of influence. The closer you get to the spider the more influence you have.

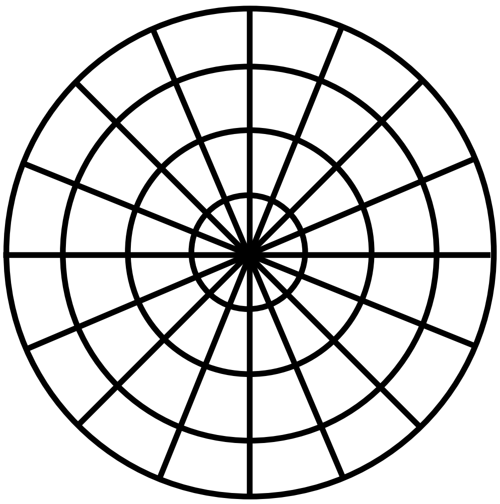
The "organisational idea" in the club culture is that the organisation is there to extend the person of the head, or even the founder. If they could carryout every task the organisation would not exist, the organisation is there actually because they can't. So the organisation should be an extension of themselves acting on their behalf, a club of like-minded people.

Some advantages of this culture are:

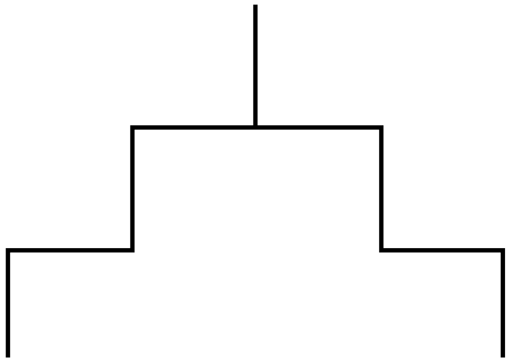
– The organisation is productive
– The objectives of the organisation will be achieved one way or another
– The work is efficient and supervised
– The system can be maintained and the organisation can do anything.
– Their great strength is the ability to respond immediately and intuitively to opportunities or crises because of the very short lines of communication and because of the centralisation of power.

Fig. OM-2 : Handy's classification of organisational cultures

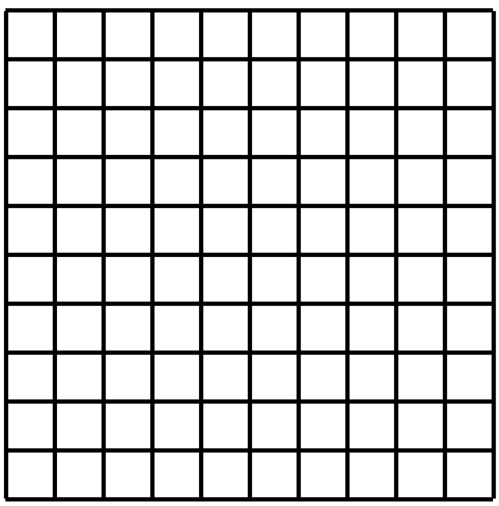
The Club Culture



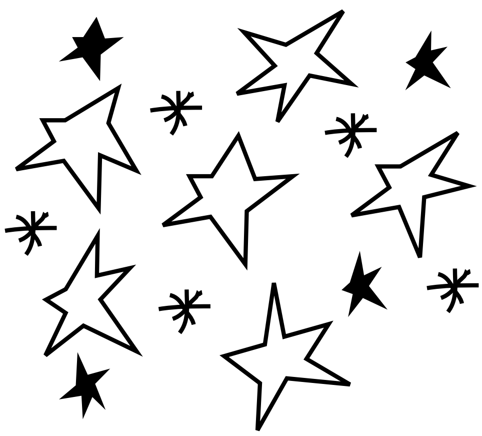
The Role Culture



The Task Culture



The Person Culture



Source : Handy, Charles (1990) Understanding Voluntary Organisations, p. 86, 88, 90, 92, ISBN 0-14-01438-6.
Reproduced by permission of Penguin Books Ltd.

However it also has some disadvantages:
– Production doesn't necessarily meet the needs.
– Decisions are made arbitrarily
– Pressure can never be released
– Causes resentment, anger, a desire for revenge on part of losers
– Puts people in a defensive position
– Personal needs of members are not satisfied.

The best image is the kind of organisational chart many organisations have. It looks like a Pyramid of boxes. Inside each box is a job title with an individual's name in smaller type below, indicating who is currently the occupant of the box; but of course the box continues even if the individual departs.

The Role Culture

The underlying "organisational idea" is that organisations are sets of roles of job-boxes. Joined together in a logical and orderly fashion so that together they discharge the work of the organisation. The organisation is a piece of structural engineering, with role piled upon role and responsibility linked to responsibility. Individuals are "role occupants" with job descriptions that effectively lay down the requirements of the role and its boundaries. From time to time the organisation will rearrange the roles and their relationship to each other, as priorities change, and then reallocate the individuals to the roles.

Advantages:
– The roles, tasks and functions are well defined and respected.
– The work is of good quality.
– Financial and hierarchical relations are well defined and well respected.
– Members feel they are taken into consideration.

Disadvantages:
– Difficulties in facing unforeseen problems
– Time consuming, few people can influence the structure
– Rejection of unplanned/unforeseen activities
– Delay in decision-making.

The Task Culture

The task culture evolved in response to the need for an organisational form that could respond to change in a less individualistic way than a club culture, and more speedily than a role culture.

The "organisational idea" of this culture is that a group or team of talents and resources should be applied to a project, problem or task. In that way each task gets the treatment it requires- it does not have to be standardised across the organisation. Also, the groups can be changed, disbanded or increased as the task changes.

The task culture is the preferred culture of many professional people, because they work in groups, sharing both skills and responsibilities.

Advantages:
– Members feel they have accomplished something they are motivated to succeed.
– People are competent, specialised, rational, independent and analytical.
– The causes and consequences of a problem are analysed in detail, as are the possible solutions.

Disadvantages:
– Difficulty to mobilise the energy of members towards managing everyday tasks, to arouse public interest and distribute information.
– Difficult to make oneself understood
– Difficult to obtain the consent of people when a change is required.

The Person Culture

The person culture differs greatly from the three previous ones as it puts the individual purposes first and makes the organisation the resource for the individual talents. The most obvious examples are those professionals (i.e. doctors, lawyers, architects) who, for their own convenience, group themselves in practice.

The "organisational idea" behind this culture is that the individual talent is all-important and must be serviced by some sort of minimal organisation.

The individual professional in these organisations see the management as lower in status with few if any formal means of control over the professionals. The professionals tend to prefer such terms as practice, chambers or partnership.

Advantages:
– Personal needs (security, self-esteem, etc.) of the members are satisfied to a certain degree

– Relationships between people are close and friendly, frank and respectful.
– Intellectual and emotional integration of members is a target

Disadvantages:
– Difficult to obtain results immediately or to implement decisions
– Causes loss of time and diverts energy form the objectives and problems which arise.

After this short description of the different styles of culture identified, it is important to say that in some cases organisations are actually a mixture of some of them rather than a pure model of one of the styles. The reason an organisation has a certain style is determined by many factors, often not by choice but rather, by chance or evolution.

Suggestions for training

• Ask the group to consider the current relevance of Handy's classification of organisational cultures. Do current organisations have anything new to add to this? What impact does a strong values base, or volunteering policy have on the culture of an organisation?

Although we do not explain them here, each style has a "type of person" which fits with it. Important research is currently being carried out to identify the personal characteristics which fit with each organisational culture. Cooke and Laferty produced "The Organisational Culture Inventory", "which is a quantitative instrument that measures twelve types of behavioural norms that describe the thinking and behavioural styles that might be implicitly or explicitly required to "fit in" and "meet expectations" in an organisation or sub-unit. These behavioural norms specify the ways in which all members of an organisation [...] are expected to approach their work and interact with one another". It also has an influence in the different ways individuals learn, an aspect which is further developed in the section on personal awareness. Although the study carried out by Cooke and Laferty exceeds the scope of this publication we wanted to emphasise the importance of culture in organisations.

Suggestions for training

• Following the descriptions of culture given above, ask the group to identify the culture of their own organisations. A first step can be a review of the main characteristics of each type. The group should be able to agree on which culture/s their organisation has most in common with. Thereafter, they should analyse the advantages and disadvantages of their culture and relate them to the reality of their organisation. The group has to be aware of the fact that culture is not a static element; it evolves with the organisation due to both internal and external influences.

2. Managing self

2.1 Introduction

A young person is often in a management position within a youth organisation not because s/he wants to be a manager, but because s/he has the opportunity to serve the organisation for a limited period of time. It is therefore common that such a person has not had management training beforehand. Often this situation is the first time the person to has had to formally manage something.

In this section we will consider the need to manage oneself in this new situation; coping with new duties, new people, new emotions. Usually the main reaction is to do things; trying to start performing as soon as possible. In this T-kit we suggest you to take a minute to think about yourself, your history, your ways of dealing and relating with others and especially with your way of learning. At the end of your management period in the organisation, you will discover that learning has been one of the main outcomes- both in terms of skills and attitudes acquired and in terms of development of your own potential.

2.2 Personal awareness

2.2.1 Learning to learn

There are different definitions of learning, related to knowledge and abilities or skills. There is no one best method of learning. Learning might be described as gaining a new awareness about one's potential; manifested in new knowledge, new capacities, new attitudes, new skills and especially in the combining of all these into what might be called professionalism.

Learning is not only an intellectual activity. Too often in formal schooling, pupils are taught study methods based only on the use of intellect. Being taught can be considered a passive activity while learning is active. In teaching, the focus is often the teacher, while in learning it is the learner. There is a significant difference. Where is the focus in training? Are we like teachers? Peter Vall says that today because we use modern technologies and more comfortable seats, we tend to believe that we do not reproduce the formal school setting learning environment. Where is the difference between a formal education setting and the one we propose?

In non-formal education, the term learning is preferred to teaching. Personal learning and learning how to learn become then the focus of self-development. The environment and other people are extremely important in learning as they form the context and bring extra meaning to the learner.

In today's society intellectual capital has replaced the more traditional meaning of capital needed for success in business or in life. Learning to learn is based on the recognition that there are different ways of learning involving the whole person including elements of intellect, emotions, body and thinking abilities.

Suggestions for training

- Collect sayings from different cultures about learning, teaching, education and training (include the European Union definition of life-long learning).
- Classify and check them.
- Confront differences and similarities.

2.2.2 Experiential learning and learning styles

Peter Honey and Alan Mumford have identified different learning styles. Their theory says that each person learns from specific situations. Being able to apply different learning styles implies that the person is able to learn from a variety of situations and experiences thus maximising their learning opportunities. In some settings then, training becomes an opportunity to reflect on our own experience and learn from it.

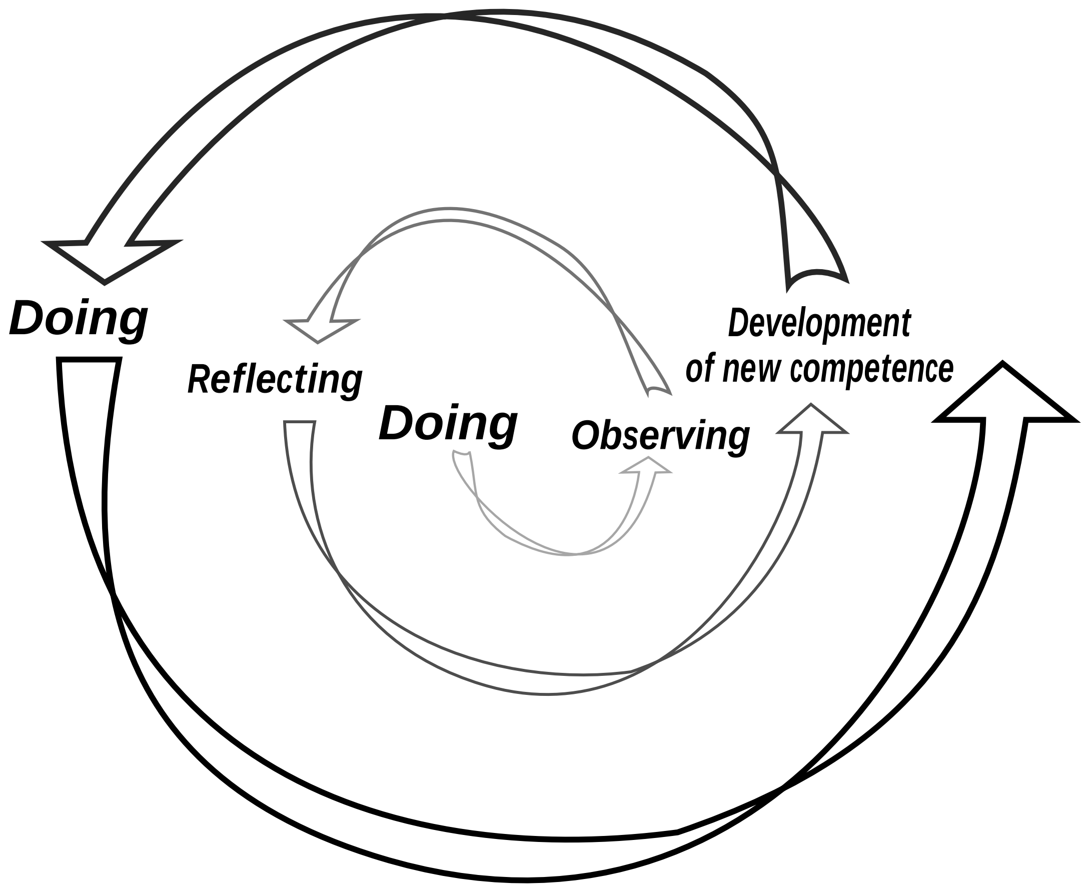
Honey and Mumford have developed a learning styles questionnaire presenting 80 situational statements aimed at helping you focus on your behaviour. The responses to the statements are processed to provide an assessment of your preferred learning style. The originators then give an explanation of the four different styles, the situations best suited to those styles and suggestions for dealing with situations where less preferred styles would be more appropriate. You should be aware that this questionnaire has been developed in the USA and some statements may be culturally sensitive.

Honey and Mumford developed Kolb's experiential learning circle, here transformed into a spiral to stress continual development.

According to this theory, what is important is not what happens to you, but what you do with what happens to you. Experiential learning is seen as a 4 step process. It does not matter how long it takes, the most important is to go from the experience phase to the thinking it over, to the critical analysis and generalisation to come to planning of the use of the newly acquired competence.

Stage 1 – Doing and experiencing is part of everyday life but it can also be an arranged opportunity.
Stage 2 – Observing and reflecting on what has happened to you.
Stage 3 – Concluding from the experience and generalising.
Stage 4 – Applying the newly acquired competence or planning a new experience.

Fig. OM-3: *Learning (circle/spiral)*



Source: Honey, Peter and Mumford, Alan (1992) The Manual of Learning Styles, p. 3, ISBN 0-9508444-7-0. Adapted version.

Fig. OM-4: *Learning styles strengths and weaknesses*

Activist – strengths	**Weaknesses**
Flexible and open minded Happy to have a go Happy to be exposed to new situations Optimistic about anything new and therefore unlikely to resist change	Tendency to take the immediately obvious action without thinking Often take unnecessary risks Tendency to do too much themselves and hog the limelight Rush into action without sufficient preparation Get bored with implementation/consolidation
Reflector – strengths	**Weaknesses**
Careful Thorough and methodical Thoughtful Good at listening to others and assimilating information Rarely jump to conclusions	Tendency to hold back from direct participation Slow to make up their minds and reach a decision Tendency to be too cautious and not take enough risks Not assertive – they are not particularly forth-coming and have no "small talk"
Theorist – strengths	**Weaknesses**
Logical "vertical" thinkers Rational and objective Good at asking probing questions Disciplined approach	Restricted in lateral thinking Low tolerance foe uncertainty, disorder and ambiguity Intolerant of anything subjective or intuitive Full of "should, ought and must"
Pragmatist – strengths	**Weaknesses**
Keen to test things out in practice Practical, down to earth, realistic Businesslike – get straight to the point Technique oriented	Tendency to reject anything without an obvious application Not very interested in theory or basic principles Tendency to seize on the first expedient solution to a problem Impatient with waffle On balance, task oriented not people oriented.

Source: Honey, Peter and Mumford, Alan (1992) The Manual of Learning Styles, p. 47-48, ISBN 0-9508444-7-0.

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The four learning styles: activist, reflector, theorist and pragmatist are linked to the four stages of learning.

For each stage there is a preferred learning style.
A preference for the activist style equips you for stage 1.
A preference for the reflector style equips you for stage 2.
A preference for the theorist style equips you for stage 3.
A preference for the pragmatist style equips you for stage 4.
All-round learners, or "integrated learners" are clearly best equipped to manage all four stages. However, most people develop learning style preferences that assist with some stages and hinder others. Those style preferences very significantly affect the sort of activities that people learn best from.

- Activists learn best from experiences where:

There are new experiences, problems, opportunities from which to learn.
They can engross themselves in short "here and now" activities such as business games, competitive tasks, role playing exercises.
They have a lot of the limelight, high visibility.
They are thrown in at the deep end with a task they think is difficult.

- Reflectors, on the other hand, learn best from activities where:

They are encouraged to watch, think, chew over activities.
They are allowed to think before acting, to assimilate before commenting.
They have the opportunity to review what has happened, what they have learned.
They can reach a decision in their own time without pressure and tight deadlines.

- Theorists learn best from activities where:

They have time to explore methodically the associations and interrelationships between ideas, events and situations.
They are in structured situations with clear purposes.
They have the chance to question and probe the basic methodology, assumptions or logic behind something.
They are intellectually stretched.

- Pragmatists learn best from activities where:

There is an obvious link between the subject matter and a problem or opportunity on the job.
They are shown techniques for doing things with obvious practical advantages currently applicable to their own job.

They have the chance to try out and practise techniques with coaching, feedback from a credible expert.
They can concentrate on practical issues.

Once you know your preferred learning style(s) it is important to be clear about the relative strengths and weaknesses of each style. Selecting appropriate learning opportunities essentially involves finding activities where strengths will be utilised and where weaknesses will not prove too much of handicap. The table on page 21 will help with you own assessment.

Your preferred learning style has implications for you as a manager, learner and trainer; most importantly you need to develop your under-developed styles so that you can learn in as wide a range of situations as possible.

It is important to remember that you tend to use your preferred learning style(s) while training or managing. To work well with people with different learning styles it is important to use a mix of activities in line with the 4 learning styles so that you can provide opportunities for everybody.

Suggestions for training

- Distribute the Honey and Mumford learning style questionnaire * and the scoring sheet without the definition of the learning styles.
- Group people according to the results obtained from the questionnaire
- Ask each group to identify experiences where they have learned best and create a profile of learning style by choosing only common elements.
- Compare them with the learning styles identified by Honey and Mumford.

Please note that in many cases people do have more than one preferred style.

Subject to copyright. You can find the questionnaire in Honey, Peter and Mumford, Alan (1992)

2.2.3 Emotional learning

Experiments on the working of emotions and their failing have given attention to the fact that emotions are important in social life as they influence our attitude towards ourselves and others. Even though there is no agreement about the origin of emotions, there is a growing evidence that fundamental ethical stances in life stem from underlying emotional capacities. There are three main approaches in studying emotions: biological, cognitive and constructivist.

The biological approach gathers emotions in basic categories that are anger, fear, happiness, love, surprise, disgust and sadness. Emotions are universal as they are biological propensities to act. The hypothesis of the facial feedback says that our feelings are strengthened by the awareness of our expressiveness and then smiling strengthens our feeling of joy (Ekman).

The cognitive approach says that each emotion comes with a general sense of excitement and then we classify them according to social conventions. Therefore we learn which emotions are allowed in which situations. The biological propensities are shaped further by our life experience and our culture. Emotions are also ambiguous and the choice of naming them is based on the consensus of others (Schachter).

The constructivist approach then affirms that emotions are only social performances governed by rules for proper emotional expressiveness.

Suggestions for training

- List the feelings that your culture allows you to express.
- **Think of the feelings your culture forces you or expects you to express in given situations.**
- **Describe how you are allowed to express your feelings.**
- **What differences exist in expressing feelings between genders?**
- **Compare such outcomes with other cultures.**

The studies above have not yet solved the dichotomy between head and heart; some point to the pre-eminence of heart, some not. There are acts of the emotional mind and acts of the rational mind. In a very real sense we have two minds, one that thinks and one that feels. These two fundamentally different ways of knowing interact to construct our mental life. The two minds operate in tight harmony for the most part, intertwining their very different ways of knowing to guide us through the world. These minds are semi-independent faculties, each reflecting the operation of distinct, but interconnected, circuitry in the brain. In many or most moments these two minds are exquisitely co-ordinated; feelings are essential to thought, thought to feeling. But when passions surge the balance tips.

Goleman suggests that in the human brain there is a meeting point between thought and emotion, a crucial doorway to the deposit for the likes and dislikes we acquire over the course of a lifetime. Cutting oneself off from emotional memory means that emotional reactions that have been associated with it in the past are no longer triggered – everything takes on a grey neutrality. That means that we often make mistakes as we do not remember the emotions linked to past actions. Therefore feelings are indispensable for rational decisions; they point us in the right direction, where dry logic can then be of less use. Emotional learning send signals that streamline the decision by eliminating some options and highlight others. The emotional brain is involved in reasoning as is the thinking brain. The emotional faculty guides our moment-to-moment decisions, the thinking brain plays an executive role in our emotions.

The old paradigm held an ideal of reason freed from the pull of emotion. The new paradigm urges us to harmonise head and heart. In addition as we explore the connection between body, mind, and spirit, we find that our emotional and thinking states influence us physically, and vice versa. Just observe your body language-when you're feeling uplifted, your body feels light and your energy is more "up." When you're depressed, you feel heavy and your energy is "down." When you're feeling vulnerable, your shoulders cave forward, your arms tend to cross your body for protection, and so on.

Suggestions for training

- Ask people to lay down on the floor by creating a chain. The contact point is head against belly. The person with the head on the belly of another person will feel the movement of the belly and it is automatically provoked to reproduce the same movements.
- Ask the person starting the chain to laugh and you will experience that everybody will start laughing one after the other like dominoes falling down.
- Put people in pairs, ask them to simulate feelings using different expressions. Create a vocabulary for the expression of feelings.

2.2.4 Learning to think

Is thinking a skill? Can we learn how to think and how to use our thinking possibilities? You have two possible answers according to what you believe. The first one is to consider thinking as a matter of intelligence determined by genes and measurable with IQ tests. The second one is to consider thinking as a skill that can be improved by training and practice. The two opposing views can be combined rather simply by using De Bono's definition "thinking is the operating skill through which intelligence acts upon experience".

This definition implies some considerations: Intelligence can be a trap in the development of thinking skills. A highly intelligent person can take a view on a subject and then use his or her intelligence to defend that view. The more intelligent the person the better the defence of the view. The better the defence the less that person sees any need to seek out alternatives or to listen to anyone else. A second aspect of the intelligence trap is that a person who has grown up with the notion that he or she is more intelligent than those around wants to get the most satisfaction from that intelligence. Reward for intelligence is to prove somebody else wrong.

Practice is not automatically followed by improvement. There is a need to pay direct attention to the methods of thinking. Thinking is not on the school curriculum because education gets caught up in the tradition trap. Those making decisions have experience and values based only on the past. Information is given priority because it tells what to do. Thinking is considered impossible to teach separately, but only linked to other subjects, thus denying its own value.

Critical thinking is the most known way of thinking. It comes from the Greek meaning "judging". It is articulated in three phases: analysis, judgement and argument. If we look at science and technology, the successes come not from critical thinking but from the "possibility" system that creates hypothesis and visions.

Perception is the most important part of thinking. Perception is the way we look at the world. What things we take into account. How we structure the world. It seems now likely that perception works as a "self-organising information system". Such a system allows the sequence in which information arrives to set up patterns. Our thinking then remains trapped within these patterns.

Thinking tools are as necessary as tools for any activity. The tools are "attention directing tools". Without them attention follows the patterns laid down by experience and we remain trapped.

Think of a coloured map. If you need to locate a motorway, your attention will be attracted by the line in the colour you know represents a motorway. Now you are in a room. Somebody invites you to close your eyes and asks you to name all the green objects in the room. Probably you will have difficulty in naming all of them. These examples show that thinking is more functional when it is directed.

Difficulties arise as we use different levels of thinking such as logic, information, sensitivity and creativity at the same time. This causes confusion in ourselves and in communicating with others. For instance, if when making a decision we let out thoughts evaluate what we would like to do, what should be avoided, our feelings, etc. we could find ourselves in a deadlock.

Edward De Bono has suggested six thinking roles which he describes in terms of six coloured hats:

The white hat – expresses number, data, objectivity, the known. It is not allowed to express personal opinion. It is just allowed to listen without discussion. What is said is not always valid for everybody, it is just an indication to be considered as such, in a neutral way.

The red hat – allows expression of emotions and feelings without justification and without a logic base. We do not need to guess other people feelings, we can ask about it. The possibility to freely express feelings allows us to turn emotions on and off in just a few seconds, without denying, hiding or modifying them.

The black hat – expresses the negative-logic; whatever logically cannot function in the given situation. It can be considered pessimistic but it is logical and not emotional. It explains why something cannot work and highlight risks, dangers and gaps in a given situation or project. This way of thinking confronts past experiences, puts them in relation to the present and values the possibility of future mistakes or failures.

The yellow hat – expresses positive thinking, optimism and is constructive. It evaluates the positive aspects of an idea, project or given situation. You should find as many good reasons as possible to support your optimistic declaration. Should your idea not be fully supported by your declarations, it is anyway worth expressing them.

The green hat – expresses the creative thinking without considering prejudices, logic, critiques or interpretations. Its aim is to look for alternatives behind what should logically chosen. It is a moving idea; jumping from one to another. It provokes us to get off the usual thinking patterns.

The blue hat – serves to control the thinking itself. It identifies the necessary thinking to explore the topic. It organises all the other roles, focusing on what is needed to deal with and to classify all aspects of the given situation, by asking the appropriate questions. It performs the co-ordination role, supervising and summing up, solving the conflict and getting to conclusions.

The hats are tools and rules at the same time. This classification of thinking is a model but remember that the map is not the territory! The exercise below will help to clarify the use of the model.

Suggestions for training

- Individually or in a group identify a problem, a situation or a project.
- Wear the hats one after the other and assume the role given.
- Freely express yourself (protected by the role).
- Do not argue with the others (people and/or roles).
- Wear the blue hat and come to conclusions.

2.2.5 Prejudice

Before talking about prejudice it is necessary to define attitudes as a tendency to make a quick positive or negative reply to a specific object or group of objects. In an attitude there is the content (the object) and a value judgement, either positive or negative, towards the object. Attitudes are persistent. As prejudice has such characteristics, thus it can be considered an attitude. There are three main aspects of prejudice:
The cognitive aspect: the total of concepts and perceptions towards an object or group of objects.
The emotional aspect: feelings towards an object or group of objects.
The behavioural aspect: actions towards an object or group of objects.

We can define a prejudice as a specific positive or negative attitude in dealing with a person when such person belongs to a specified category of people. When the prejudice is translated into a specific behaviour we can talk about discrimination.

Discrimination can have two negative effects: (a) an attack to the self-esteem (when you feel inferior, you think that you have no value) and (b) looking for self-failure as commitment to success is proportional to the perceived probability of success.

Discrimination can also be positive: This is an important element to consider in a management environment: we behave according to expectations and thus we fulfil prophecies by validating the prejudices.

There are 4 elements of social influence in a management (or training) situation:

- The emotional environment – the positive consideration towards some people
- Information – the higher degree of information released to some
- Change in behaviour – more attention given to those we love most
- The degree of feedback – a clearer and constant judgement given to the preferred colleagues (or trainees).

Suggestions for training

- Identify the prejudices towards a category of people you belong to.
- Classify them as positive and negative, intentional and non-intentional, covertly and overtly.
- List those you reinforce by saying them or behaving according to them.
- List those you oppose and how you express your opposition.
- List what you do to convince others not to say or behave according to the prejudices you are against.

There can also be institutional discrimination: Research has shown that the effect of discrimination varies according to the place in history.

Today there is more understanding about many groups of people and social influence has lessened its pressure towards some of them. There is also more awareness about one's rights and less fear about claiming them.

As prejudice is expressed in behaviour, change in behaviour does not always correspond to change in attitude. Often change is difficult because prejudice is socially accepted and seen as a way to recruit new friends or to build position.

Prejudice is normal, degeneration is not normal. Problems arise when we want to impose something such as our good ideas, traditions and so on. The degeneration of prejudice is linked to the power you have and the use you make of it in management or training situations.

You will find out that there are stages in dealing with prejudice.

The first step is the "ist" situation – to recognise and to acknowledge that prejudice exists in ourselves and in other people.

The second step is the "non-ist" situation – to refrain from behaving according to and taking distance from prejudice.

Third step is the "anti-ist" situation – to actively invite other to recognise their prejudice and to change their behaviour.

From ist to anti-ist is a long journey.

For further reading you can also consult the T-Kit on intercultural learning.

Suggestions for training

- Divide the group in pairs and give to each person a role taken from discriminated category of people. In turn one person takes the role of the discriminated person or the role of a person against the discriminated one. One person has the role to attack and to say all sort of stereotypes against and the other has the role of defending her/himself. It should last around 5 minutes per round. Questions for the debriefing:
- Did you change your behaviour?
- How did you feel when you were attacking?
- How did you feel when you were discriminated against?
- Were you better equipped in defending yourself or in attacking?

2.3 Managing your personal resources

The first part of this section has allowed you to become aware and acquainted with the discovery of yourself and your potential. This part will go into techniques on how to manage your personal resources.

2.3.1 From competence to professionalism

Essence can be described as what is "one's own"; the potential with which we were born, rather than what we have acquired through our education, our ideas or our beliefs. The environment both physical and human and the relations in the environment provide us with the opportunities that if taken, can help in developing our potential and thus becoming "competent".

The relevance of some competencies varies by time to time. It is therefore very important to identify the competencies necessary to our stage of development through an attentive analysis of what is happening around us.

Competence is the combined result of values, skills, attitudes and knowledge and experience. Values are the behavioural responses or actions according to the moral beliefs held by an individual or an organisation. Skills are the abilities that enable you to do something. What you have in your mind that comes out of your hands. Attitudes are about thinking something, this thinking makes us feel something and we react accordingly. Knowledge is about information and understanding is about the ability to manipulate and apply knowledge. Another way to describe competence is that it is the result of knowing, doing and being.

Le Boterf suggests that however we describe competencies, they do not have a life in themselves. They are nothing if not linked to an individual that makes them alive. It should also be said that there is a difference between acting competently and the resources necessary for doing so. Resources can be external – data, individuals, organisations – or internal – knowledge, skills, qualities, experiences, emotions, etc. professionalism is then the ability to combine resources for competent actions. Human beings do not think according to a linear structure or just with logical operations: metaphors and analogies have a role. Human beings react to signs with a no fixed a priori meaning and with an unlimited number of meanings. Therefore we cannot control the conditions favouring the combined knowledge. The real professional competence lays in the highly probable forecasting. There is no one single way to be professional in front of a given situation. Different behaviours can be all good or bad. Professionalism lays in the ability to describe complex pictures and situations by picking up the key elements to interpreter it without reducing or simplifying it. The richer the image is, the higher the professionalism.

In such a complex situation as the reality of today, planning can be replaced by navigating. In order not to fall into a sort of wandering, it is important to fix some key points. In that sense managing and training are not about control but they become a way of giving meaning, sense of direction and motivating. As we cannot be in control of our life, this philosophy helps you to recognise what you can and cannot.

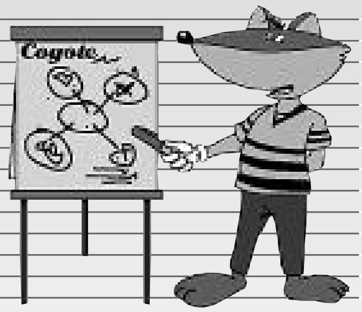
There are some tools you can use to make it happen, e.g. personal development plans (setting personal objectives), empowerment plans (guided taking of responsibility) or self-evaluation plans like mapping competencies as described below.

- Identify your best competencies (knowledge, skills and attitudes).
- Put them on the "Competencies' map" and score them (0=nothing, 1= very low, 5=very good).
- Note the peaks and troughs.
- Identify a job or task you need to perform and list the competencies needed for it.
- Compare your map with the competencies needed.
- Look at the gaps.
- Identify opportunities for improvement.
- Do it again after a while and look at the differences in listing and scoring competencies or compare it with those of your colleagues to seek for complementarities.

Suggestions for training

Self development plan

- Identify maximum 5 aspects of your life you do not want to renounce.
- Identify maximum 5 aspects of your life you are not satisfied with.
- Try to link them and identify possible paths to get to your self development plan.



SWOT analysis

- Identify your Strengths.
- Identify your Weaknesses.
- Identify Opportunities offered by the environment.
- Identify the Threats offered by the environment.

2.3.2 Self-motivation

Youth activities are mainly done in groups. Decision-making is a group process in youth organisations. Structure always involves committees. Meeting is always a source of emotions, pleasure and workload. Preparation and implementation of the decisions is often delegated to one person. Everybody relies on her/him for the daily management of the organisation. Motivation comes along with group activities, but it is not always present in working alone when you feel the pressure of the entire organisation on your shoulders and especially you do not have anybody next to you to share your thoughts with. Self motivation is a skill essential in your work as difficulties sometimes are seen as insurmountable because everything seems out of our control.

Motivation is the force that drives you to do things. It is linked to emotions, needs and expectations. The concept of need that motivates people has been the foundation of most motivation theory. In our society, for most of us, most basic needs have been met – food, clothing, somewhere to live. There are middle-level needs – job security, a reasonable wage, reasonable working conditions. Higher level needs will motivate people in a lasting way.

These are the needs to belong to a group, social status, the need to be in control of one's life, the need for self-fulfilment and pride, the need for personal development. Further notes on motivation in the work place can be found in the section on Managing People.

Often youth workers and volunteers complain that their middle level needs are not fulfilled, but they stay and keep on doing their job. Is the voluntary world different from other organisations as far as motivation is concerned? In the business sector people tend not to stay with an organisation unless middle level needs are fulfilled.

Try to think about the elements that encourage you to perform better. Praise is a powerful motivator. If nobody is around you, praise yourself, aloud. Sometimes it is enough to say "well done!" or reward yourself by doing something you especially like.

Pavlov introduced the expectancy element into motivational theories. His studies proved that a suitable reward – praise, a bonus, approval of colleagues – after the required performance will soon lead to expectations that a suitable performance will bring its own rewards. In the same way an unsuitable performance can lead to expectations of disapproval, loss of a bonus, etc.

The studies of Mayo and Herzberg showed that motivation stems from the consideration given to people and their involvement in the decision making process. The feeling of being "important" or necessary to the organisation is a high motivation factor.

Suggestions for training

- Ask yourself this question "What or who motivates me?"
- List *who* and *what* in separate lists and group them.
- If the *who* list is bigger than the *what* list, start there.
- Identify some areas where you feel that you could be motivated by the *who* identified.
- Help them to motivate you. In this way, helping them to the right attitude towards you, you can greatly increase your own motivation.

You also have the power to increase your own motivation. You can follow these steps:

- Realising your own worth – write a five line description of yourself, emphasising your good points. Most people find this extremely difficult as culture teaches us to be modest! Try to find 10 good points. If not you might like to try the diary method. Record each day in a small pocket diary that you carry with you, three events that you really enjoyed. It will help to remind you about your ten good points!
- Realising that you can change things – is question of moving from the duty stage to the will stage. "I do things not because I am obliged to but because I want to".
- Thinking positively – first of all believe that you will succeed. Failure is an adult concept, children are not afraid of mistakes. Identify an aspect you would like to change, write it down and then identify the barriers to this change and write them down. Are you sure that these barriers are insurmountable.
- Setting your goals – write them down and remind them to yourself! Decide on the means to achieve them and set a time scale.

Do not hurry this process and remember that motivation is infectious!

2.3.3 Managing time

Time management is one aspect of good management and is one of the most important elements in self-management. It is important for everyone and especially for those who have responsibilities for others.

What is time?

- Time is our most important resource and it is important to utilise it fully
- Time is the only resource we cannot increase. Once it is gone it cannot be regained.
- Everyone has the same amount of time, all the time that is available is 24 hours each day. The way we use it is the only thing that differs.
- Stealing time from others is inexcusable. If you create respect for your own time you will respect other people's time. Always being late for appointments or meetings means that you are wasting other people's time while they wait for you to arrive.
- At different moments of the day, points in your life, time seems to pass at different speeds. When you are absorbed in your work or having a good time it goes quickly. When you are bored or frustrated it passes slowly.

There are some basic principles in time management. They can help you in identifying criteria to improve your time management.

- Planning – Learning to plan each day, week, month, year is the first step in learning to control your workload. This also enables you to start being realistic about how much work you take on, how much time it will take and what it will involve.
- Prioritising – Learning to distinguish between urgent and important tasks and assessing which aspects of your work should take priority is essential when trying to manage your time.
- A good working system – Learning to establish a daily routine, dealing with paperwork effectively, telephone calls, communication with colleagues and filing, all play an important part.
- Using your diary as a tool – Your diary plays an essential part in managing your time and should include plans, action lists, important notes and any other relevant information concerning your job.

2

- Learning to say NO – One of the reasons we become overloaded is that we have an automatic tendency to say "yes" when people ask us to do things. Learning to say NO is one of the golden rules of time management. Nothing is so important that we cannot take a few minutes to assess whether or not it would be realistic for us to agree.
- Am I the right person for the job? – Often we agree to do something without assessing whether or not we have the skills, knowledge or confidence to do what we are being asked. We often just feel guilty and say "yes". It is useful to assess whether or not the task fits in with your overall responsibilities or is in line with your job description.

This exercise, if it becomes a daily exercise, will help you in rationally using your time.
You should not forget that the concept of time changes according to latitude. In some cultures being late is unacceptable, in others is allowed or expected. Therefore our perception of time is not the same everywhere. Time is also linked to the concept of quality, power and to expectations.

In whatever latitude you live, it is important for you to be aware of your way of using your and other people's time. Only if you use your work time properly will you have time to rest!

Irish poem

Take the time to work,
for it is the price of success.

Take the time to think,
it is the source of strength.

Take the time to play,
it is the secret of youth.

Take the time to read,
it is the seed of wisdom.

Take the time to be friendly,
for it brings happiness.

Take the time to dream,
for it will carry you to the stars.

Take the time to love,
it is the joy of life.

Take the time to be content,
it is the music of the soul.

Suggestions for training

- Brainstorm a list of everything you would need in order to complete a task.
- Arrange the task list into priority order in a time sequence.
- Decide who will complete the task.
- Estimate how long it would take to complete each task, given your existing workload.
- Establish any additional resources you may need.
- Set a deadline for each task.
- Transfer tasks into a daily task list in your diary.

Fig. OM-5: *A method to identify your thieves of time*

The following questions should help you to control your time at work and to identify your thieves of time	True			
	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely
The telephone bothers me when I am in a meeting or preparing an important document				
Telephone conversations are almost always unnecessarily long				
My assistants or colleagues interrupt my activities to tell me their problems or to have a chat				
Visitors or vendors interrupt my personal work by turning up without warning				
Working meals and receptions make me feel heavy and sleepy				
Meetings last too long and are too frequent				
The agenda of meetings is non existent or badly prepared				
The computers break down too often				
The secretaries are overworked				
My assistant calls me up during the weekends and during my family holidays				
I have a mountain of matters on my desk to deal with				
I find it difficult to establish and meet deadlines except when under pressure				
I have too many papers on my desk, the mail and other reading take too much time				
I put off to the last moment the important tasks which demand a great deal of concentration from me				
I can't clearly define my objectives and priorities. They are confused and changeable				
I deal too often with secondary matters				
I don't make a daily work plan				
I don't delegate a part of my responsibilities to others				
I have a tendency to want to do things too well. I get too involved in details				
I often have to resolve problems which others could deal with just as competently				
Add up the points obtained in each column	=	=	=	=
Multiply the total in each column by the value which is allocated to it	X0 =	X1 =	X2 =	X3 =
Calculate the general total	=			

From 0-30 points:

You are letting yourself be robbed every day by the thieves of time. As you do not plan your time they are stealing your capital of time.

From 31-40 points:

You try to install a security system to protect yourself from the thieves of time. But the system does not work sufficiently or regularly enough for you to really succeed.

From 41-50 points:

You manage your time well enough but you notice some problems and weak points in your control system through which the thieves could attempt an armed attack on your capital of time.

From 51-59 points:

Your capital of time is not likely to fall into the hands of the thieves. Congratulations, you are a model for all those who want to learn to manage their time.

Acknowledgement of above diagram is made on an "await claim" basis. The copyright holder has not been traced. Any information enabling us to contact the copyright holder would be appreciated

2.3.4 Managing stress

Stress occurs when there is an imbalance between a demand made on a person and the resources available to respond to the demand. The demand may be real (i.e. things outside the person's control). Likewise the resources may be real (facts) or perceived (what you think, feel, imagine, etc).

Resources include:

- Physical ability: health, fitness and strength.
- Intellectual ability: capacity for complex thinking and problem solving.
- Emotional ability: accurately identifying feelings and constructively meeting needs.

Good stress can have a positive impact on a person. This form of stress is achieved when the brain and body feel challenged and want to extend in order to respond to the situation. This is caused when a person is feeling as though s/he:

1. Has ideas of possible solutions to the challenge ("Look at all these possibilities!");
2. Has the resources (internal and external) to solve the challenge ("I can do it!");
3. Has some control over what's happening ("I have choices!");
4. Has had sufficient rest between his/her challenges.

The severity of stress is the amount or level of stress that is felt as a result of a stress or – event or situation causing you stress. There are certain factors which influence the degree of stress that is experienced, these have an impact on the person's well being both physically and psychologically.

The Factors are:

- Characteristics of the stressor
- Your perception of the stressor

Each event or situation has certain characteristics that determine the severity that the stressor may or may not have on us. The characteristics of the stressor and the severity of stress which result, include the following:

- Significance – how critical and important the event is to the individual (deaths, failing an exam, break-up with boy/girlfriend), and how much change will have to be dealt with. The greater the significance and change, the higher the impact of the stressor.
- Time length – if a stressor is continued over a long period of time, it will result in higher stress levels. For example, tiredness: insufficient sleep over an extended period of time will result in higher stress than that caused by just one night of bad sleep.
- Cumulative Effect – This is when stressors are built up over a period of time without appropriate mechanisms to reduce or release the build-up. For example, a long series of little irritations and annoyances could result in a massive blow-out between two people.
- Multiplicity – A number of stressors at one time will result in higher stress levels. For example, a fight with one's parents, final exams around the corner and loss of a loved one will be experienced as much more stressful than if each of these events happened separately.
- Approaching deadline – if a demand has been made a few weeks or months in advance of the deadline, the degree of stress will increase as the due date approaches. For example, if you are given a project assignment two months in advance, it will probably seem to far away to get worked up about. As the deadline approaches, and the work has not been completed, your stress level will increase until you do something about the project.

Each person perceives a potential stressor differently. How a person perceives the stressor, and the amount of stress it invokes depends on your self-concept, your body's stress tolerance, your age, and your external resources. This section examines these in detail.

Self-concept
This is based on the "Theory of Interpersonal Needs". It states that each person has the following emotional needs:

- The need to discover our unique identity as well as to be included (feel valued and important) because of this unique identity.

- The need to have the power to control or influence what we do and what happens to us
- The need for connecting with others and feeling liked and loveable.

Because we have these needs that only other people can meet, important people in our lives can influence who we become and how we end up feeling about ourselves. When these needs are met in healthy ways, we feel valued for being ourselves, competent, useful, admired, loved and supported. The result is a positive self-concept and self-esteem. When these needs are not met, we end up feeling worthless, useless or unlovable. The result is a negative self-concept and lack of self-esteem.

Your self-concept acts as a filter, and results in you seeing the outside world in the same way as you feel inside. Poor self-concept (i.e. minimal feelings of worth toward yourself) may result in the perception that you are incapable of overcoming a challenge. When faced with a situation that needs to be dealt with, you feel anxiety and fear because you are not sure whether you will be able to handle the situation correctly, or even if you will know how to handle it at all!

If you feel loved and positive about yourself, your strong feelings of self-worth and belief in your ability will give you that extra boost of strength to cope in the face of a stressor! Positive self-concept provides you with internal resources that you can call on when dealing with a demand. It enables you to respond to stress.

Body Stress Tolerance

This refers to the amount of stress that your body is able to withstand without totally breaking down. This has to do with your physical resources: how healthy your body is. This is determined by how fit you are, how much sleep you get and how well you eat.

Age

Each developmental stage that a person goes through has its own set of stressors.
The infant's main developmental task is to establish a sense of self and to have his/her social/emotional needs met by family as mentioned above.

The preteen and teenage years move the focus from family to peers in the form of social life and school. Many teenagers are stressed as a result of pressure to be "cool" and to succeed.

Socially, friends and popularity can become a big stress if the young person does not have as many friends as s/he wants. S/he may adopt behaviours to look (and feel) cool and popular. At school, internal and external pressures arise.

Adult stressors are qualitatively different but still huge in number. A single person has to work out finance-management, living security, work and time for socialising.

With a family, these are all multiplied because one has to worry about oneself, spouse and children. There are so many responsibilities that adults have, and it is these pressures, frustrations and conflicts that result in high stress levels.

The retired person has five main situations that induce stress: loss of health, status, work, independence and friends, with increased dependency on others (financial, physical, emotional).

At different times in one's life, some stressors will have a greater impact than others because of the person's situation, needs and life experiences.

External Resources

When you have to deal with a stressful situation, it can decrease the amount of stress you feel if you have one or more people to share your feelings with. It is much harder to cope when you feel as if you are all alone and have to deal with a situation by yourself.

Until now we have been talking about stressors but we need also to consider the meliors – positive indicators, the exact contrary of the stressors.

Meliors are experiences that help in creating a status of well-being and happiness, increasing a vital inner force. Probably memories of such events are present in your mind. Each person and each community should identify and recall "their own meliors" as they will help the life of the community

Fig. OM-6: *A checklist to help you manage stress*

- You may want to print this page and keep it for future reference! Put it in your journal or diary to refer to it when you are feeling intense emotions. It was designed for school or college students but the applications for managers in European Youth Organisations are obvious.

❑ Manage and plan your time so work and "play" time is balanced.

❑ Look at how you use time: do not waste optimal/prime thinking and creative time watching TV or reading the newspaper, rather save those for the time of day when your brain is least energetic.

❑ Don't procrastinate when it comes to doing homework, projects and studying.

❑ If you are prone to procrastination, organise a "study-buddy" and you each check up on each other every hour or so

❑ Set bite-size goals and time limits so you can see your progress and keep moving forward.

❑ Drink as much water as possible (good for brain functioning).

❑ Take a break, try to laugh with somebody (not at somebody).

❑ Always ask questions when you need further explanations.

❑ Understand that sometimes you will not be able to do all that you want to do (i.e. sometimes school work needs to take the place of partying!)

❑ Be active outside, breathing fresh air, as much as possible (need oxygen for effective brain functioning).

❑ Write down all that you need to do before you start, it enables you to have a full picture of what needs to be done!

❑ Exercise to circulate blood with oxygen, helping nutrients get to brain. Also, exercising uses up the increased adrenaline, sugar, etc. that has been released due to stress

❑ Eat healthy food, it helps you grow "smarter" brains!

❑ Talk to people you trust to get the stress out of your system

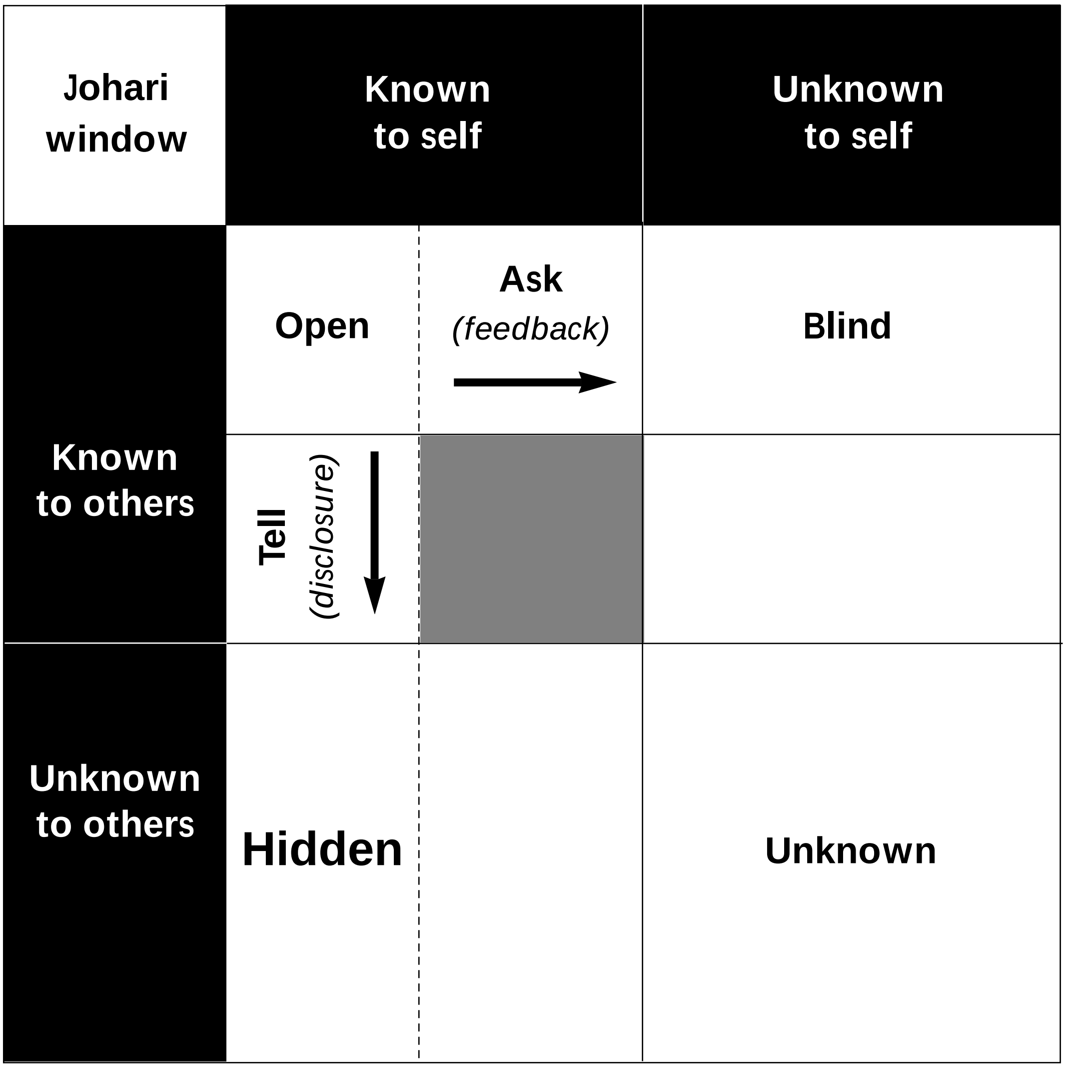
2.3.5 Managing communication

Everything we do tells something about us – words, actions, gestures, way of looking, etc. Not only words have symbolic or conventional meaning but everything has a meaning given by the culture and the context in which it is used. Sometimes we do not use the same symbols or when we do we wrongly assume that the interpretation of symbols will be the same.

In communicating, feelings, perceptions, past experience, history and expectations have a bigger role than words as they provide noise or interference to the means of communication; distorting or reinforcing the message itself.

In communication there are always the senders and the receivers. The receiver role is to interpret the message sent by the sender and to send back a confirmation message. It is therefore essential that sender and receiver use the same code, composed not only of words, but also gestures and symbols. Attention should then be paid not only to the words but to all communication system around you.

Fig. OM-7



Acknowledgement of above diagram is made on an "await claim" basis. The copyright holder has not been traced. Any information enabling us to contact the copyright holder would be appreciated.

Any communication, in order to be effective should consider the following elements:

- Contents – what you want to communicate
- Media – what is the best method of communicating in this situation (spoken, written, images, simulation, exercise).
- Significance – what is the meaning for each participant and for the group
- Direction – is the message given with possibility of reply or is just a communication.
- Effect – check it with the feedback and then adjust the communication.

This will help you to move from a linear communication system into a circular one.
Consider now the context – physical and social environment, interpretation of the participants, identity (roles and functions) of themselves and of the others, previous events and expectations.

The context will allow you to better understand the communication because it allows predefined behaviour according to shared rules. The Iceberg model detailed in section 1 clarifies this further.

In a multi-cultural environment it is important to double check the messages given. Often when speaking a foreign language we use the same words with different meanings as we try to adapt them to our own native language. Asking questions becomes a useful tool for making sure that you have understood and that your message is understood properly. Giving feedback is an art not only a tool for a better understanding.

The Johari's Window, named after the first names of its inventors, Joseph Luft and Harry Ingham, is one of the most useful models available when describing the process of human interaction. A four paned "window" divides personal awareness into four different types, as represented by its four quadrants: open, hidden, blind, and unknown. The lines dividing the four panes – grouping aspects of our self which are known or unknown to us and known or unknown to others – are like window shades, which can move as an interaction progresses.

Some degree of self-disclosure benefits relationships, increases self-esteem and leads to a more stable self-image. By changing what is in one pane, you change what is in the others. If you seek feedback from people, then you will learn things about yourself that you didn't know before, but others were aware of. Thus, those things are shifted from the Blind Pane into the Open Pane. If you give other people feedback about yourself, you will shift things from the Hidden Pane to the Open Pane. This all involves self-disclosure, a willingness to put your trust in others. It involves taking risks, as we reveal things to others which we have kept private up to now.

In our society there are various limitations on self-disclosure: people of higher status generally reveal less about themselves to people of lower status; women generally reveal more to women, than they do to men.

Self-disclosure is often seen as an indicator of positive mental health. It implies trust in others and self-acceptance, it reduces the need for defensiveness and the potential for embarrassment. It shows self-confidence and is often reciprocated. By revealing something about yourself, you are likely to encourage people to reveal something about themselves in return. You will also get to know who you are – you can discover that features of yourself, which you find embarrassing or shameful, are considered by others to be entirely acceptable; but you will not learn that unless you're willing to reveal something.

The process of enlarging the open quadrant is called self-disclosure, a give and take process between me and the people I interact with. Typically, as I share something about myself (moving information from my hidden quadrant into the open) and if the other party is interested in getting to know me, they will reciprocate, by similarly disclosing information in their hidden quadrant.

2.3.6 Managing change

There are as many different ways of managing change as there are kinds of change.
Change is about uncertainty. Change management is the process of moving from the current state to the "vision" of the future and involves a degree of transition which may also result in "pain". In this chapter we are talking about personal change.

Suggestions for training

Important – this exercise should only be done with a group who know each other well and within which there is a high level of trust and sensitivity.

- In a group ask everybody to write on a piece of paper a small change s/he would like to do in order to improve her/his life.
- Then ask people to swap the piece of paper around.
- Then ask one person to read out the written statement s/he has found.
- Then ask everybody to clap if they wish to apply the proposed change.
- You will see that some statements will be highly appreciated while others not.

There are different types of change.

- Change can be incremental as from manual recording of information (writing) to current laptops with advanced capability. It has happened through several steps. Each step is incremental requiring skills training and capital outlay.
- Change can be of an even greater nature. Consider metamorphosis, for example, which requires a complete change of state and represents a severe shock to the status quo (in most cases requiring a sleeping phase to cope with the change).

Change evokes all kind of fears and uncertainties. Consequently we tend to change only when we have to. It is difficult to get an organisation to change unless the people inside it can see the reason for change, believe it to be valid and accept it as necessary.

A catalyst has to be powerful if we are to face the uncertainty of change. Often it is difficult circumstances that prove the most powerful catalyst. People resist change for lots of different reasons and to varying degrees. This resistance to change is often proportionate to what they feel they are loosing and the uncertainty of the situation they face. Conversely people tend not to resist doing things they understand and which they know will benefit them. What they do resist are things which seem to be imposed, things which they do not understand and things which are beyond their control or influence.

Key questions you could ask yourself:
What are the key internal catalysts for personal change?
What are the key external catalysts for personal change?
What are the main barriers to personal change?

The characteristics needed to succeed will change and individuals, like organisations must adapt over time. Certain characteristics are known to identify those organisations which are responsive to change. Organisations which recognise and tackle external influences and are responsive to change tend to demonstrate certain characteristics:

- Access to information – if change is to be effective and people allowed to become more involved in the pursuit of the aims of the organisation, they need to have access to information.
- Ability to handle ambiguity – any organisation needs to learn how to operate in uncertainty. People need to be able to tolerate not having all the answers, to learn to keep questioning and to be ready to change course as new opportunities emerge and threats materialise.
- Being innovative – successful organisations are those which release and harness the innovative potential in everyone.
- Taking risks – the freedom to be risk-takers must be part of the culture of the organisation. The “attitude to mistakes” needs to be explored throughout the organisation.
- Team ethos – encouraging a corporateness rather than individuality
- Flexible but robust systems – organisations which manage change effectively keep their procedures, policies and systems simple.
- Ability to handle conflict – organisations which are successful foster argument and divergence and yet manage to bring this together as a creative process.

These characteristics can also be applied to some extent to individuals. Our ability to accept and implement change at a personal level, may correspond to one of the following stages:

- Shock and disbelief – the feeling of surprise or being caught “off balance” when something unexpected happens. “Oh no, it cannot be true; are you sure?”

- Guilt/anger/projection – a feeling of frustration (why didn't they tell us?). Guilt (I should have filled out that questionnaire). Because we cannot deal with anger and guilt over along period of time we tend to project it into others. "They" become the enemy, and are responsible for the change and resulting problems.
- Rationalisation – we begin to move beyond our feelings and start to use our heads. Begin to seek to understand the problems or to make them rational, and to develop ways to cope.
- Integration – attempt to integrate the meaning of the change into our behaviour. Begin action to implement the change.
- Acceptance.

There are then 4 further stages in the implementation of change:

- Awareness – acknowledgement that the change is happening.
- Understanding – involves openness about the "pros" and "cons"; requires involvement in the process; must have open communication; opportunities for education and training are provided.
- Commitment – occurs when people begin to value the change, and understand that change will make things better.
- Action – involvement in the development of implementation plans; clear definition of roles and responsibilities.

Culture and people are inextricably linked. A change programme will affect the way the organisation and the people in it work. People react differently to change depending on their own personal agenda, circumstances and understanding of the process. It is easier to have a negative response than a positive one. Those opposed to change obviously need attention but even those in favour of change will be affected and need to be managed properly.

Remember that organisations do not resist change, people do!
Unless the people in an organisation – at all levels, from senior management to employees – are committed to the change, then it will fail. This is not an option and without this commitment any project is doomed. Successful change management is about taking the people with you.

The change is not over when it is implemented. It needs careful attention all the way through from the three big stages: unfreezing (accepting the need for change), moving (planning and implementing the change) and then freezing again (celebrating and consolidating the change). This sequence can be repeated many times. It is important to split big changes into small ones. It makes them easier to manage and gives a feeling of satisfaction and reassurance as the stages are completed. It also demonstrates that change works! But remember – when the process is repeated too often it gives a feeling of perennial instability.

Pasini and Donato provide us with some suggestions for the successful management of change of yourself.

1. *Discovering the area you want to change.*

It is important to understand that we have different attitudes in different areas of our lives. Identify the area you want to change and check how the environment you live in will let you change.

2. *Learning to dream.*

Changing implies dreaming something new, unknown, to be invented. Dreaming something better, imagining what you really would like. Only then do you need to identify the strategies to achieve it.

3. *Do not expect change to start from the others*

It is too easy to assume that it is somebody else's fault if you are dissatisfied. You need to find the inner resources to change, without being pessimistic.

4. *Creating dynamic relationships*

Too often we think in stable relationships. Each of us change and it is because of that that we sometimes prefer to deal with strangers instead of friends or colleagues. However, making changes along with others both requires and creates dynamic relationships.

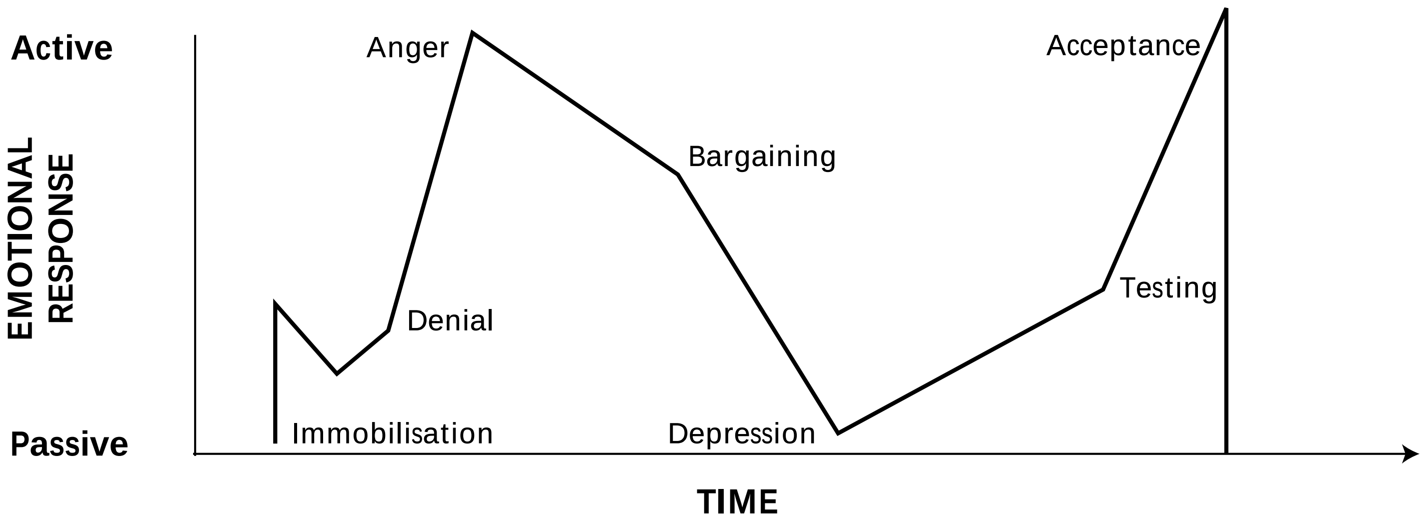
Fig. OM-8

PREPARING FOR CHANGE

PEOPLE

NEGATIVE RESPONSE

A negative response to change is to be expected.
Change is different and many people will be against it on principle, whatever it actually means for them.



Source: Jones, Neil R. (1995) The Managing Change Pocketbook, p. 56. Management Pocketbooks Ltd.

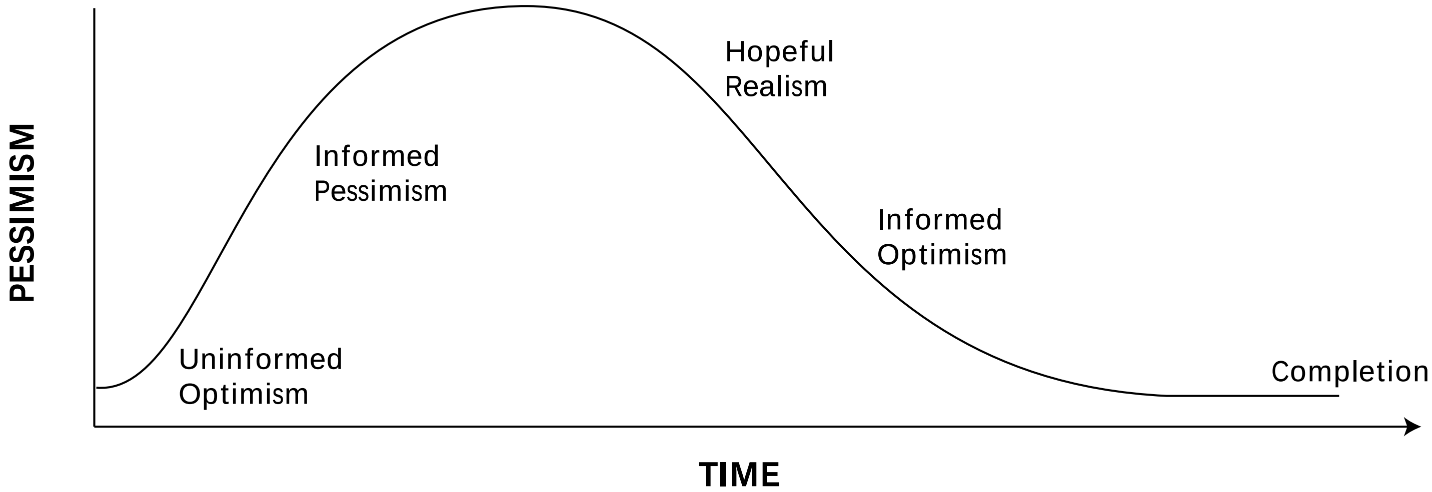
Fig. OM-9

PREPARING FOR CHANGE

PEOPLE

POSITIVE RESPONSE

Even those in favour of the change - such as those starting a new job, those about to be married, those moving home and (NB: change managers) those on secondment to projects - will need managing to ensure that they do not succumb to pessimism as they move through the different phases.



Source: Jones, Neil R. (1995) The Managing Change Pocketbook, p. 58. Management Pocketbooks Ltd.

Fig. OM-10

PREPARING FOR CHANGE

ORGANISATIONAL READINESS TO CHANGE

MEASUREMENT

Organisational change style

ENVIRONMENTAL STABILITY	MANAGEMENT ADAPTABILITY TO CHANGE: High	MANAGEMENT ADAPTABILITY TO CHANGE: Low
Low	Proactive	Reactive
High	Average	Static

(Based on the work of Harvey and Brown)

Source: Jones, Neil R. (1995) The Managing Change Pocketbook, p. 61. Management Pocketbooks Ltd.

3. Managing people

3.1 Introduction

Who are the people?

It has become a cliché to say that an organisation's most valuable resource is its people – but it is still true. And our people need to be managed in a way which enables them to be fulfilled in their work and to reach their potential – for themselves and for their organisations.

The purpose of many European youth organisations is the development of people and so it is perhaps wise that we start with those on the inside – be they paid or unpaid, volunteers, staff or Board members. Each person – whether we see them as groups or individuals – needs to be managed and led in order to reach their potential and to ensure that their efforts serve the organisation in the most effective and efficient way.

Each person brings talents and skills and knowledge and experience into their work. For the purpose of this T-kit we will call this collection "competence". Each person has a unique set of competencies which can be applied in different ways and in different situations. For example, an unpaid Board member may bring years of financial management experience, the skill to read and interpret balance sheets and a real talent for explaining figures to others with less experience. The down side might be that this experience comes from a different sector – the commercial world where the driving force is profit – and the Board member might have difficulty balancing that with the social objectives of the organisation. In contrast the youth worker with the ability to relate well with young people on the street and a natural talent in counselling, may have difficulty keeping records of expenditure. Both have a unique set of competencies and both have a significant contribution to make to the organisation. Managing people is about making the most of those competencies, for as much of the time as possible and ensuring that they continue to develop.

This section of the T-kit is dedicated to the issues of managing people. A significant proportion is given over to the concepts of team working and leadership, as this forms the foundation on which much of the other material is based. Having answered the question "who are the people?", the following chapters attempt to answer the question "How do we manage them?"

Throughout the section suggestions are made for discussions or brainstorming titles. In some cases a list of possible answers is also included.

3.2 Teams and leaders

3.2.1 Teamworking and leadership

Most if not all European youth organisations are made of people who work in teams. The synergy created by people working towards a common goal enables much more to be accomplished than would be done by individuals who did not share the same vision. Often however, our teams are geographically disparate and are made of a mixture of paid and unpaid staff, full time and part time, young and old and – dare we say it? – competent and incompetent. This variety brings both benefits and challenges.

Suggestions for training

What is a team?

A group assembled for a specific common purpose?
Prepared to put the goals of the group before their personal ones?

What makes an effective team?

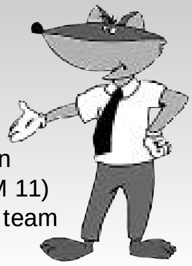
Communication and feedback skills?
Ability in group maintenance?
Support for the leadership?
The balance of relevant competencies?
A climate of trust, openness and sharing?
Full and willing participation?
Commitment to team objectives?

What are the disadvantages of team working?

Time consuming?
Loss of individual identity?

The purpose of this section is to provide some tools to enable us to get the most out of our teams. You might start by asking the following questions, which can be turned into an exercise.

Suggestions for training



- Compare the Belbin team roles (Fig. OM 11) with those of your team

An important piece of work has been carried out by Meredith Belbin in relation to the individual roles members of a team take on. As individual members and especially as leaders, we do well to understand the roles to which we are best suited. Belbin categorised "useful people to have in teams" into 8 types as described in the table below.

As can be seen, there are both strengths and weaknesses to each of these roles, as indeed there are in any individual in a team. The crucial issue is that we understand and appreciate these and that we can see where the gaps are in the composition of our teams.
The roles people take in teams are frequently fluid and dynamic, and often change as the team develops or the situation changes. In one sense, it is helpful to think of leadership as just one role that can be taken by an individual and the same is true for management. The latter in particular can be broken down into a number of functions which might be shared between a number of different people at different times.

The terms leadership and management are often used to mean the same thing, when in reality they are two distinct roles. Leaders are often expected to be good managers and managers are often required to provide leadership for those they manage.
One way to express the distinction is that "**Managers do things right, whilst leaders do the right thing**", alternatively, it is sometimes said that leaders are responsible for effectiveness and managers are responsible for efficiency. The significant issues being those of direction and focus for the leader and method and application for the manager. For example, the leader would be the person who took the initiative for the development of a strategic plan, would introduce new concepts and encourage discussion and criticism of the performance and policies of the organisation.
The manager would be keen to ensure that the agreed policies were adhered to, that indicators and measures of performance were appropriate and were used. S/he would be concerned with application whilst the leader would perhaps be more concerned with design. It is clear that the two elements – leadership and management – cannot easily be separated. The reality is that some people in positions of responsibility have stronger leadership competencies than management competencies and vice versa. Another good reason for the team approach to running organisations.

Suggestions for training

- What are the different functions of a manager?

  Co-ordination
  Encouragement
  Motivation
  Setting an Example
  Recruitment
  Target setting
  Ensuring the job is done
  Maintaining an overview

Organisations come together to achieve a particular purpose or task. Much of leadership is about **clarifying that purpose and uniting people in their commitment** to it. John Adair has suggested that the achievement of the **task** depends on the attention given by the leader to both the needs of **individuals**, and to the needs of the **group (or team)** as a whole.

As we lead – indeed as we manage – groups of people, we need to consider the relative amounts of time and effort we put into these three areas (see OM 12). If we work hard on maintaining the identity and the morale of the group but fail to attend to the individual needs of its members then achievement of the task will suffer. Likewise, if we give all our attention to

Fig. OM-11: *Useful people to have in teams*

Type	Typical features	Positive qualities	Allowable weakness
Company worker	Conservative, dutiful and predictable	Organising ability, practical common sense, hard working self-discipline	Lack of flexibility and unresponsiveness to unproven ideas
Chairman	Calm, self controlled and self-confident	A capacity for treating and welcoming all potential contributors on their merits and without prejudice. A strong sense of objectives.	No more than ordinary in terms of intellect or creative ability
Shaper	Highly strung, outgoing and dynamic	Drive and a readiness to challenge inertia, complacency, ineffectiveness or self-deception	Proneness to impatience, irritation and provocation
Plant	Individualistic, serious-minded and unorthodox	Genius, imagination, intellect and knowledge	Up in the clouds, inclining to disregard practical details or protocol
Resource investigator	Extroverted, enthusiastic, curious and communicative	A capacity for contacting people and exploring anything new. An ability to respond to challenge.	Liable to lose interest once the initial fascination has passed.
Monitor evaluator	Sober, unemotional and prudent	Judgement, discretion and hard-headedness	Lacks inspiration or the ability to motivate others
Team worker	Socially orientated, rather mild, and sensitive	An ability to respond to people and to situations, and to promote team spirit	Indecisiveness at moments of crisis
Completer finisher	Painstaking, orderly, anxious and conscientious	A capacity for follow through, perfectionism	A tendency to worry about nothing. A reluctance to "let go".

Source: Belbin, R.M. (1981) Management Teams, Heinemann; reprinted by permission of Butterworth Heinemann Publishers, a division of Reed Educational and Professional Publishing Ltd.

3

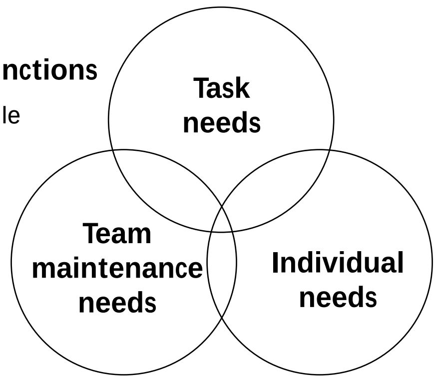
Fig. OM-12 : *Action centred leadership model*

Task functions

Defining the task – Making a plan – Allocating work and resources
Controlling quality and temps of work – Checking performance against the plan – Adjusting the plan

Team maintenance functions

Setting standards – example
Maintaining discipline
Building team spirit
Praising, motivating, giving a sense of purpose
Appointing sub-leaders
Ensuring communication within the group
Training the group



Individual functions

Attending to personal problems
Praising individuals
Giving status
Recognising and using individual abilities
Training the individual

An effective leader

A) Is aware of task needs, team maintenance needs and individual needs of his group
B) Has the **skill** and **training** to meet those needs, in accordance with the priorities of the situation

Source : Adair, John (1983) Effective Leardership : a Self Development Manual, Aldershot : Gower ISBN 0-330-28100-3

the needs (or demands!) of one or two members of the group at the expense of group cohesion and common understanding, the same will happen. Furthermore, if we constantly focus on the task to be achieved, without attending to building up the group of people as a team, or to the development needs of each individual, then we can expect achievement to be difficult to sustain and potentially off target.

As teams are fluid and dynamic, so leadership needs to be both flexible and dynamic. The so-called ruthlessness of famous world leaders through history can perhaps often be interpreted as single minded commitment to a cause; a commitment which followers share and which overrides all other considerations. But in European youth organisations at the beginning of the new millennium, democracy, shared decision making and a team approach are crucial to the achievement of goals. While the phenomenon of leadership by personality still achieves much; sustainable, empowering and inclusive leadership is able to respond to a wider range of needs with a wider range of solutions.

Suggestions for training

- In small groups discuss a leader from history and what it was which made them successful or effective

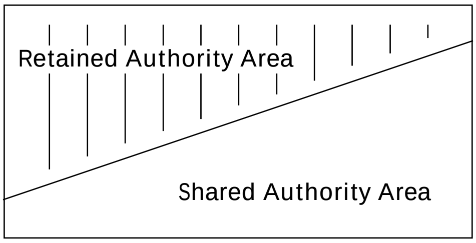
Responding to need is the *raison d'être* for many, if not all our organisations. Needs are often diverse and changeable and so leadership of our organisations needs to be both responsive and pro-active. The notion of leadership "**style**" can help our understanding here. If our leadership is to be dynamic and flexible then the leader needs to be able to read situations – tasks, teams and individuals – and make decisions about how they should be responded to. A leader's decisions will also create situations – new tasks, closer teams, better developed individuals (or their opposites). How those decisions are made is a reflection of style.

A number of writers have blended their description of leadership style with their understanding of how teams develop. Their models can help in assessing the appropriateness of a particular style at a particular stage in the development of a team.

In this model, distinct stages of development of a team can be seen. In reality, the stages are never so distinct and the team may slide down the pole some or all of the way in the course of its development and its achievement of “performance”.

Fig. OM-13: *How to choose a leadership pattern*

An alternative presentation of this is:



Tells **Sells** **Tests** **Consults** **Joins**

Tells

Manager	Thinks Plans Decides
Group	Submits Conforms Gives Assent

Sells

Manager	Decides then puts decision to the team to get agreement
Group	Listens to ideas and gives assent

Tests

Manager	Plans and puts various solutions to the group and then decides
Group	Gives views on solutions then gives assent to chosen solution

Consults

Manager	Presents problems to group and asks for possible solutions then decides
Group	Participates in the thinking and solving of problems but not in the decision or control

Joins

Manager	Shares all decisions and control
Group	Shares control and becomes a democratic body

Source: Tannenbaum, R and Schmidt, W.H., “How to choose a leadership pattern” in Harvard Business Review, May-June 1973.

Fig. OM-14: *Greasy Pole Model*

PERFORM	• Positive direction • Creativity • Initiative • Flexibility • Open, honest relationships • Commitment, pride in the team, team spirit • Maturity
NORM	• New goals • Atmosphere of Honesty, Tolerance and Listening • Deeper relationships, understanding each others values and contributions • Do task according to individual and team abilities • Establish own team disciplines • Develop assertiveness
STORM	• Express feelings about each other • Emotional • Lack of direction • Insecurity • People going against expectations
FORM	• Who follows who • Poor listening • Feelings kept hidden • Shallow relationships • Inflexible • Status conscious • Do as others expect you to • Thinking of your own needs and problems

Source: Tuckman, B. W. (1965) “Developmental sequences in small groups” in Psychological Bulletin vol. 63, p. 384-399.

The model above indicates that authority or decision making power, is transferred gradually to a group as it develops the competencies – both in individuals and collectively – it needs to carry out a task. The group which is perfectly capable and experienced in carrying out a task will not respond well to a "telling" (or authoritarian) style of leadership. Likewise the team which has only just come together – even if it is made up of highly competent individuals – needs to be given information and direction early on so that it can progress towards shared authority for decision making.

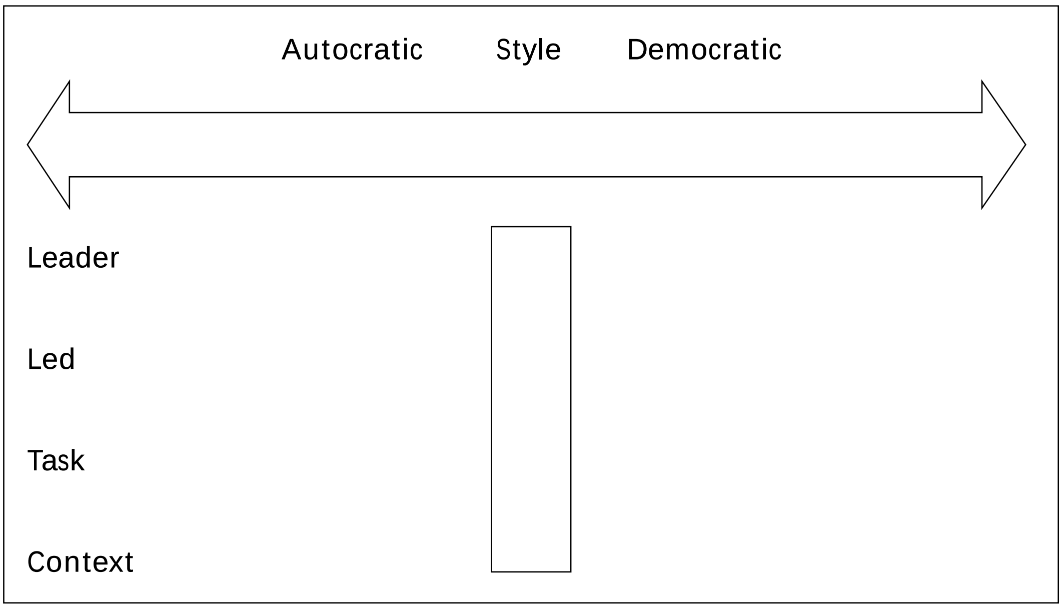
As with any other role or function in a team, leadership – of whatever style – requires the development of competencies; not least in choosing which style to use and when. The term delegation needs some attention here as it is used both as a style of leadership in its own right, and as one of the skills applicable to many styles. Delegation, when used to describe a style of leadership, implies that authority for decision making is handed over to team members. It requires a level of trust in both leader and team, and a full understanding of the task and the competencies of the team. As a generic skill, delegation still requires trust and understanding; furthermore it requires the ability to decide what tasks or responsibilities should or should not be delegated.

Suggestions for training

Some questions to ask trainees (individually, and collectively)

- Make two lists – one to describe the things which happen in ideal teams e.g. communication, decision making, trust, support etc etc; and one to describe the types of people you need in an ideal team e.g. leader, resource finder, time keeper, co-ordinator, worker. Compare these lists with the team you are currently a part of; where are the gaps and the repetition?
- What do you consider to be the key skills and attributes of the ideal leader in your organisation?
- In response to the slippery pole model (figure 3) choose a team which you lead and discuss what stage of development you feel it is at. What style of leadership is most appropriate to ensure development and achievement of the task?

Fig. OM-15: *The "best fit" option*



Reproduced by permission from B600 "The Capable Manager" The Open University, 1994.

In conclusion then, we have considered teams as dynamic developing groups and leaders as dynamic, flexible people within them. We have seen the need for a balance of attention to be given to the task, the needs of the individuals and the needs of the group as a team.

Elsewhere in this document we have considered the context of our organisation; internally, in terms of organisational culture and externally in terms of the Social, Technical, Economic, Political and Environmental context **(STEPE)** in which we work.

Leadership is crucial in all of this, and the most effective leadership will have found a "best fit" for the demands of the following four elements: The leader's preferred style, the team's preferred style, the style most appropriate to the task and the style most appropriate to the context.

As we move into the next section we will consider issues and competencies which help to make teams work.

In doing this we will build up a kit of management tools and discuss the choices managers make in their use.

3.2.2 Motivating people

In chapter 2 we considered the concept of self motivation. In the following section we consider how we motivate others, particularly in the light of some theoretical models.

Suggestions for training

By way of introduction to the subject of motivation we need to ask the following questions.

- In working (paid or unpaid) for your organisation, what is it that gives you pleasure and/or satisfaction, and what is it that gives you displeasure and/or dissatisfaction?
- Think of other jobs you might do in this or other organisations – what, if anything, would change on your list?

If we select one thing from these lists e.g. Money, we can then consider how that item can be both a motivator and a demotivator. Herzberg presented the idea that some things satisfy us, but the absence of them does not necessarily produce dissatisfaction. Likewise, some things dissatisfy but the absence of them is not necessarily satisfaction, rather no dissatisfaction.

Motivating Factors = satisfiers = job content = Maslow's higher order needs

Hygiene Factors = dissatisfiers = job conditions = Maslow's lower order needs

Suggestions for training

- Returning to your lists, which items would you classify as Hygiene factors and which ones would be Motivating factors?

Maslow presented his hierarchy of needs as in the diagram below, suggesting that once one level of need is satisfied then a person moves on to the next level of need.

Without the satisfaction of the lower order of needs (1, 2 and 3) then the higher ones will not be relevant.

As we consider the people we manage it, would seem that effort first needs to be put into meeting the lower order needs – the dissatisfiers – Herzberg's hygiene factors. Often, but not exclusively, our organisations can say that those lower order needs have been met and that the role of the manager is to focus on meeting higher needs such as achievement, recognition, self esteem, personal development and self realisation.

Suggestions for training

- How, as a manager do I ensure that those who work for me are having their higher order needs met? How do I ensure that they are sustained?

Motivating Factors (higher order, growth needs) control quality of working life and the quality of experiences at work. Some are inherent in the job e.g. achievement of tasks; and others come from good management e.g. respect for and from other people, opportunities for development and challenging work.

Alderfer (in Handy, 1990) grouped Maslow's hierarchy into three sections – Existence needs (Maslow 1&2), Relationship needs (Maslow 3 & part of 4) and Growth needs (part of 4, & 5). He stated that these needs are Chronic – always there, or Episodic – sometimes there. There are some clear links here with the Action Centred Leadership model of John Adair, as outlined in the previous section (Figure 12); Existence needs might be paralleled with Task needs, Relationship needs with Team needs, and Growth needs with Individual needs.

Suggestions for training

- Consider what effect style of leadership might have on the motivation of your team members. Do some styles of leadership focus on Hygiene Factors and some on Motivating Factors?

McGregor's theory X and theory Y suggested that manager's styles fell into two categories due to theories about people's motivation to work. Theory X states that most people are lazy, are unable to discipline and control their work, prize security and avoid responsibility. Thus people need external incentives and to be told what to do.

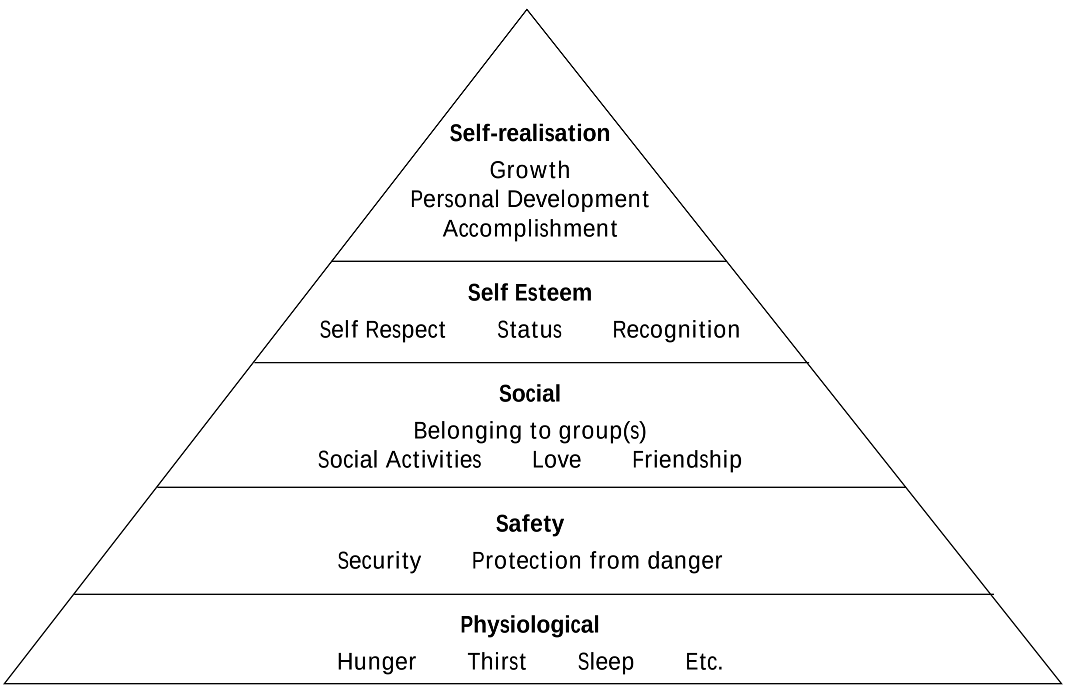
Theory Y states that all people find work natural, accept self discipline, seek responsibility and like commitments. Thus people can only realise their potential if they are allowed to use their imagination and creativity.

Suggestions for training

- Consider your experience of managing people and of being managed. How do you respond to the two theories? What evidence can you see to support each one?

Source: Maslow, A.H. Motivation and Personality, © 1954. Reprinted and electronically reproduced by permission of Prentice Hall, Upper Saddle River, New Jersey

Fig. OM-16: *Individual needs*



3.2.3 Empowerment

The concept of empowerment is intertwined with all of this. Referring to the Tannenbaum and Schmidt model in the previous section (Figure 13), we can see that leaders (and/or managers) can retain or devolve power to others through their style of leading (or managing). Empowerment need not necessarily imply that the power is handed over from one in authority to a subordinate. Some thinkers would argue that everyone has the power already and all the "empowerer" does is enable the realisation of it. In working with young people in particular, we need to consider where we are withholding or over burdening them with power and where we are "disempowering" by not enabling their knowledge or abilities or creativity to come forward.

We return again to the idea that the purpose of many of our organisations is to enable young people to reach their full potential. An empowering attitude to the management of those who work with us is primarily about realising the full potential of the human resource of the organisation.

Finally, we need to consider again the dynamism factor. People and organisations change, as do their environments and contexts. This has to affect motivation: Through past experience (upbringing, education, experience in and out of work); through their present situations (the individuals own perspective and one's own view of the perspectives of colleagues); and through our perceptions of the future (prospects in this organisation and outside, personal aspirations, paid or unpaid). The young volunteer who has a stable family background, good education and the encouragement of peers and leaders will have a very different kind of motivation to the person without such encouragement and whose previous experience is of failure or rejection. Both may be well motivated, but the combination and origin of the hygiene and motivating factors outlined above, may be very different. Maslow's highest needs centre on personal growth and the realisation of potential. An empowering approach, built on an awareness of and commitment to meet the progressive needs of those we work with, is the route to motivation in all parts of our organisations.

3.2.4 Responsibility

In a world where legislation is increasingly used to highlight and define responsibilities, managers need to consider their responsibilities at several levels.

On a personal level we have the responsibility to manage workloads: it is an irony that in many values-driven organisations the assumption is often made that staff of any kind will automatically take on greater and greater workloads – "for the love of it"! We need to make ourselves accountable to friends and family for the amount of time we give to our jobs and for the ways in which we allow work to affect our health and general wellbeing. This of course is a consideration for the managers who either condone, by doing nothing to stop such working practice, or positively encourage by simply asking more and more of their workers.

At another level, managers need to consider the issue of professionalism – both for themselves and their staff. Lack of payment is no excuse for unprofessional conduct and so this applies as much to volunteers and Board members as it does to paid staff. We need to consider the limits of personal relationships in the work place, issues of prejudice and discrimination, health and safety and honesty and integrity. At an organisational level, we need to consider the systems we have in place to safeguard workers against accusations of misconduct in any of these areas. This will no doubt have implications on financial and other resources. There is much legislation around these issues but the values of our organisations should also have an influence on the commitment we show to them.

At a higher level still, the nature of European youth organisations is such that we have responsibilities outside of our organisations too. We have to be accountable to funders and perhaps above all, to the people we exist to serve. The quality of services and information we deliver will be a reflection of the seriousness with which we take all our responsibilities.

3.3 Training, development and assessment

3.3.1 The learning organisation

Many European youth organisations focus on the development of young people in an holistic way. How this is done is a feature of each individual organisation. The emphasis given to the development of staff and workers will also be unique to each organisation. The fact that many of our organisations are values driven is sometimes at odds with the hard realities of running programmes with very limited resources. This can lead to compromise when it comes to the amount of time and money devoted to learning. We can however, identify some key features of organisations which would be classed as "learning organisations".

At the heart of this concept is the idea that organisations develop through the individual, personal development of those who work in them. Some key principles are outlined in the bullet points below.

- The benefit and value of continuing development is recognised by staff and volunteers
- All workers – paid and unpaid – are encouraged to take responsibility for their own learning and development
- Organisational structures are both sufficiently well designed and flexible enough to allow for personal growth and development
- A learning climate is encouraged in which learning from experience and feedback is facilitated and in which mistakes are allowed
- Strategies and policies are developed though consultation and as consciously structured learning processes
- Financial commitment is made through effective budgeting, to support the learning process

Suggestions for training

- Ask participants to consider their organisations in the light of these principles. Where are the strengths, and where are the weaknesses? What are the blocks and what are the opportunities?

There is a temptation, when encouraging learning – especially in young people – to forget that the personal development is intended to result in organisational development. Without clear organisational goals and mission, it is impossible to assess whether or not personal learning will assist in meeting them; or indeed whether it is justified to expend both time and money. Spending time and money for example, on language training course in Spanish will be difficult to justify for people in organisations whose primary area of work is in Belarus!

A further temptation is that we insist on training courses as the only way in which we learn. The term "training and development" is recognised to include more than simply going on courses and the word "learning" is becoming widely used as a catch all for any experience which, when appropriately facilitated, leads to personal growth. As managers of learning organisations we need to be open to seeing opportunities for our staff which will help them grow and consequently be more effective in their jobs. This might relate to competence – including knowledge and skills – or it might relate to motivation or self confidence or team working. It might also relate to the perspective from which an individual looks on a problem or on the organisation itself, for example, a visit to another branch of your organisation – or even to an other organisation all together, may result in the member of staff seeing a problem differently and consequently finding a previously overlooked solution. Examples of non-training-course learning opportunities include job shadowing, (where a staff member or volunteer spends a period of time along side another worker – literally being their "shadow", either in the organisation or in a different organisation, to see what that job entails and how that person does it), on the job training, conference attendance, learning sets.

Assessment of work performance is mentioned later in this section but it is worth noting here the value of both planning learning in the context of a regular work review and of recording and accrediting any learning which does take place. Personal development logs are an ideal tool for this.

Suggestions for training

- Ask your group to consider the last three occasions when they felt they learned something. Ask them to explain the value of that learning to their organisations and to describe the process by which they learned.
- Who were the key players in the most significant instances of personal growth or development in the last three years? What made them key players?

The reality of many European youth organisations is that they are not learning organisations. There is too frequently a lack of induction into the organisation itself and it is often the case that paid staff work very much in isolation – sometimes at odds with their Boards of Management. The ability to network – either within your own organisation or with others in similar ones – is a crucial part of the Learning Organisation in practice.

3.3.2 Learning Styles

As we promote the idea of personal learning, we need to acknowledge that each individual will have a preferred way, or style, of learning. Some people prefer to get at a subject by solving a real problem. Others prefer to hear some theory and make generalisations before applying it to their situation.

In the previous section on management of self, we introduced the concept of learning styles. In this section we need not reiterate the details but we do need to consider the way in which learning styles of those we manage affect the way in which we manage them.

As managers do we get the most from activists by letting them "jump in the deep end"?, or do we ensure that the reflectors in our teams have sufficient time to absorb and consider information before they are pressed for decisions. Do we allow theorists to question things and do we make the most of the pragmatist's ability to transfer learning from one situation to another?

Likewise when we consider the type of learning experience we encourage our people to engage in: Does the learning style match the learning delivery? One advantage of the experiential learning cycle as described by Kolb, is that it contains elements which are of relevance to each of the four learning styles described by Honey and Mumford. Activists enjoy the doing phase, Reflectors find it easier to engage in the reviewing phase, theorists participate most effectively when allowed to draw out the key learning points and Pragmatists are most able to apply their preferred style in the application of the learning to a new situation.

3.3.3 Assessment of performance and work review

If our organisations are to continually grow and develop through the growth and development of our people, then we need a mechanism for reviewing this on a regular basis. Many commercial organisations use the concept of the annual appraisal as a tool within their "performance related pay schemes". It is also used this way in some NGOs. The difficulty arises when the focus of such an assessment is on the past performance rather than on the future potential. The term "work review" is perhaps less threatening and provides a balance between the two. The regularity and frequency of work reviews needs careful consideration: A full review annually, with a six month interim review of progress towards agreed goals, is a well tried norm.

It is a sad reflection that Boards often let down their staff – and their fellow volunteers – by not carrying out work reviews. Where the relevant competencies are not present in a Board then training should be sought, or outside help found to provide the service. Regular work reviews are a useful tool to check the relevance and accuracy of job descriptions of staff and volunteers. Job descriptions can also used to provide an agenda for a work review. Work reviews are also useful as a tool for overcoming resistance to change as they provide an ideal opportunity to consider the individual's contribution to the development of the organisation at a strategic level.
In assessing past performance, for whatever reason, a number of criteria may be useful to ensure equality and agreement.

1. The assessment needs to be planned. – The process needs to be clearly explained and time given for planning and preparation. The plan also needs to include advice on the kind of evidence which might be used to demonstrate performance.
2. Performance needs to be measured against something. – Targets set at the beginning of an assessment period need to have been agreed from the outset and any changes noted. The measures or standards against which assessment takes place need to be clear and relevant to the job. Again this where reference to the job description and person specification can be useful. J.W. Humble was particularly associated with Management by Objectives (MBO) and the importance of Key Results Analysis (KRA). Criticism of his ideas were that the process of using a job description which listed the main responsibilities, lines of communication, objectives and budgets as the basis for

the setting of Key Results was too mechanical. The mechanism normally associated with the process meant that there was a strong preference for quantitative targets and that these targets may not have led to the business performance which was sought. Given that the whole process was linked with financial reward then it is easy to understand resistance to being "processed" in this way. The temptation for large organisations to adopt this or variations of this system, is obvious. Uniformity and objectivity as well as precision are all proposed as advantages.

3. Feedback must be clear and constructive. – Only the set and agreed criteria can be used to make judgements and all available evidence should be used. Where further evidence is available but has not been collected, opportunity to do so should be given. Where inconsistencies arise then these should be clarified and resolved. Giving and receiving feedback can be very divisive and it is essential that both are done with sensitivity and honesty. The idea of the hamburger – top and bottom made up of positive comment, praise and recognition, and the middle made up of points for improvement – is a common approach to this. Feedback needs to be well timed, accurate, specific, relevant and must point to the future.

- The exercise given at the end of the section on coaching is an ideal way to practice and receive feedback on your feedback!

In identifying further learning needs, the following criteria may be useful.

1. Individuals should be able to identify their current competence and their own long term goals. The competencies required to achieve the latter should be established.
2. Learning opportunities should clearly match the learning need. The preferred style of the learner should be taken into account and choices made from as wide a range of opportunities as possible.
3. Managers need to commit to continued support. The assessment meeting should be seen as part of an ongoing process in which the manager has a vital interest. Assistance in choosing learning experiences, preparing for them and reviewing their outcomes should be agreed and built into the plan for the coming period.
4. A record of the performance assessment and the plans and commitments for the future should be written and agreed by both manager and staff members.

The points above are intentionally written in the formal style often used when introducing procedures for work reviews or performance assessments. The reality – perhaps more so in European youth organisations – is that the benefits of such a procedure are more or less controlled by the quality of the relationships between staff and managers – be they paid or unpaid. Open and honest relationships and the ability to give and receive feedback as a daily norm will ensure that regular work reviews are profitable and even enjoyable experiences.

Suggestions for training

- Ask course participants to design a plan for a regular work review. What would be the time scales? What questions would be asked before and during the review.
- Consider the outcomes of a regular work review. How do we make them SMART (Specific, Measurable, Achievable, Realistic, Timed)?

3.4 Coaching, mentoring and counselling

3.4.1 Coaching

Coaching is a process which aids improvement in performance – traditionally we understand it best in the context of sport. Here, performance is about winning races or competitions, or exceeding previous records.

The coach is a person who enables improvement by using a selection of approaches, styles and techniques appropriate to the sport, the competition and the individual concerned.

It is a feature of coaching that it normally involves a one to one relationship, and this is also true when applied to the world of work.

Fig. OM-17 : ***Coaching spectrum***

Directive	***Facilitative***
Characteristics	*Characteristics*
Coach identifies problem	Coachee identifies problem
Coach decides on solution	No telling
Tells	Asks open questions
No Questioning	Listens
Little Listening	Coachee identifies solutions
Intrusive on coach’s time in long term	Coachee owns the solution
Coachee may not “buy in”	Coachee gains new skills
	Becomes less intrusive,
	saves long term cost and time
Useful	***Useful***
– to solve an immediate, urgent or	– to develop coachee’s confidence
Stressful problem	– open up their potential
– when learner has no background knowledge	– improve coachee’s performance

Effective Coaches :
Operate flexibly along the spectrum to meet circumstances

Ineffective Coaches :
Tend to operate directively but without sensitivity

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Coaching may result from the work review process or may be provided as a result of other situations such as the start of a new job or project. In the Action Centred Leadership model mentioned earlier (figure 12), coaching applies primarily to the circle marking the needs of the individual. Indeed relationship is once again a key word in the use of coaching.

As with leadership, coaching – which can perhaps best be described as one of the many tools of a leader or manager – can be applied using a spectrum of behavioural style; from directive to facilitative.

Suggestions for training

- Consider the issues, problems or tasks which may benefit from coaching amongst staff, paid or unpaid in your organisation.
- Consider how important it is for the coach to understand the technical detail of the job of the coachee. How does this differ from other elements of leadership ?

The model below shows the importance of relationship within the coaching process. Trust enables a relationship which can then approach a number of objectives in a cyclical manner.

Feedback is an essential part of coaching. If Coaching is about helping people fill the gaps in their performance, then feedback is the letting people know how well they have filled the gaps.

Giving feedback requires skill and is both the result of and the reason for the trusting relationships mentioned earlier. As a practical check list, consider the following:

1. Start and finish on a positive note – think of feedback like a hamburger, with positive comments being the bun and items for improvement being the meat in the middle.
2. Concentrate on facts and be prepared to give specific examples.
3. Think about your body language. What signals are you giving through your posture and eye contact (or lack of it)!
4. Make sure that feedback is given as soon as possible after the observations are made.
5. Using a facilitative approach will leave the coachee the time to work on his or her own solutions. Open questioning will help in this process.

Receiving feedback also requires skill, and perhaps most importantly, the desire to learn. Some practical tips include:

1. Remember that the person giving feedback is on your side. They may be taking a risk in talking this way.
2. Consider your body language. What signals are you sending through your eye contact and body posture?
3. Listen carefully, seek clarification when necessary, don't seek to justify or defend unless asked to.

Suggestions for training

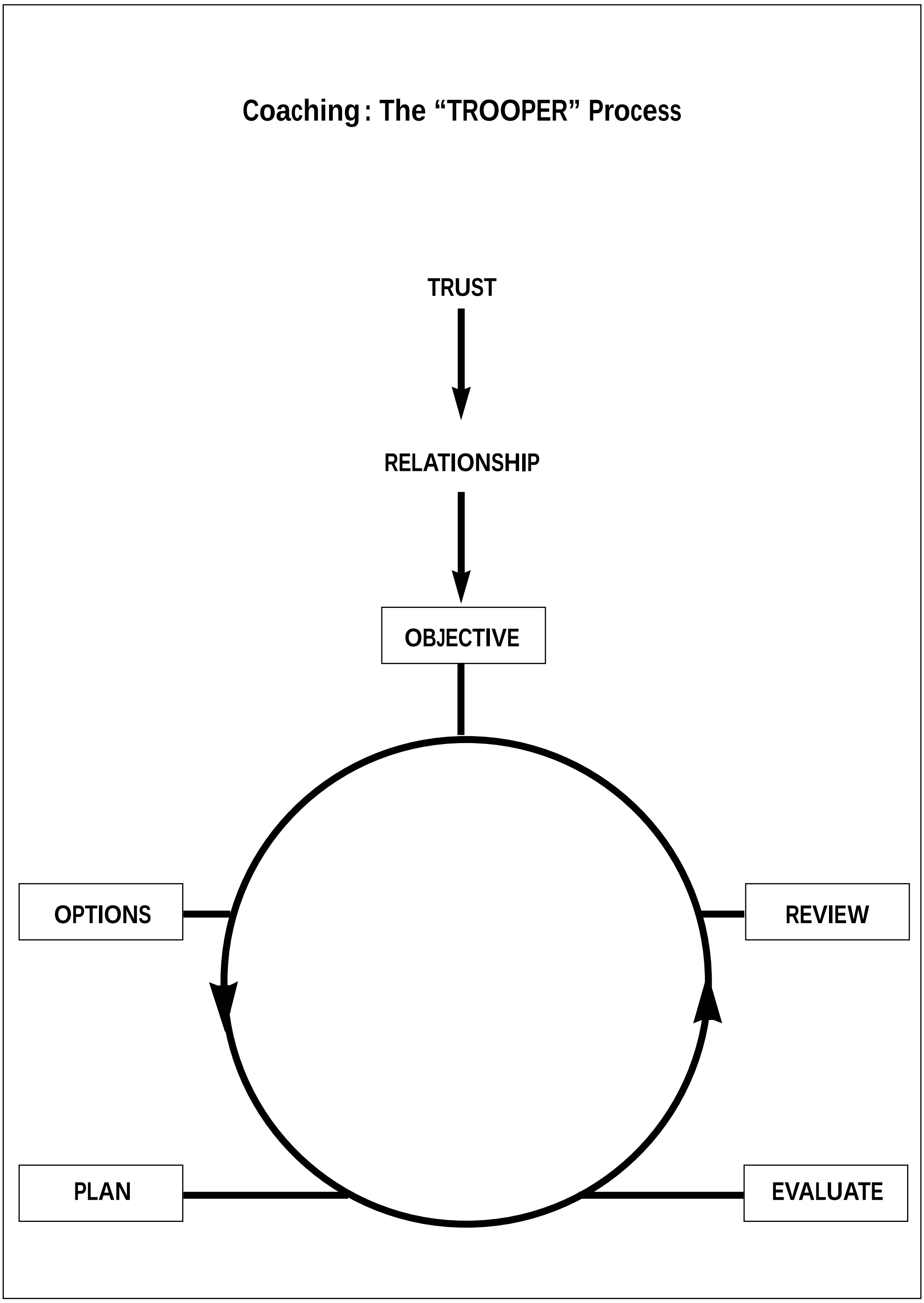
- Choose an activity where a coach can observe another member of the course carrying out a task (eg giving a presentation). Provide time to prepare and then set up a coaching interview where a third member of the group can observe and give feedback on the feedback !

3.4.2 Mentoring

While coaching is generally seen as a tool used by a manager, mentoring in common modern usage is often, but not exclusively, a relationship which happens outside of the manager/subordinate situation. The word comes from Greek mythology where Ulysses entrusted his son to the care of his old friend Mentor. Coaching and counselling are often used to mean mentoring, but it is hoped that this section will provide a sufficiently clear distinction between the three.

In the introduction to David Clutterbuck's book "Everyone Needs a Mentor" 1991 a great range of definitions are given. In brief, phrases like "mixture of parent of peer", "a role model, a guide, a coach and a confidant", "a protected relationship in which learning and experimentation can occur, potential skills can be

Fig. OM-18: *Trooper diagram*



Reprinted by permission of Paul J.P. Hazell developed and in which results can be measured in terms of competencies rather than curricular territory covered".

Mentoring then is about personal growth which does not have to relate to the job of the protégé directly. It has the character of a long term relationship in which an individual is encouraged to explore, discuss, experience, discuss some more, and maybe draw some conclusions along the way. The trust and integrity are crucial once again, as is long term commitment from both mentor and protégé.

Some people choose mentors from outside of their organisations whilst others prefer the closer understanding of the organisation brought by a colleague. Peer mentoring in young organisations, or those which are only staffed by young people can be equally beneficial. It can also be a mutually beneficial process – particularly if a staff member is mentored by a volunteer or Board member.

Suggestions for training

- One commentator's summary of the role of a mentor is given below. Consider first how competent you would be to carry out each part of the role; and secondly who you currently know who might be able to fulfil the role for you.

MENTORS

Manage the relationship
Encourage the protégé
Nurture the protégé
Teach the protégé
Offer mutual respect
Respond to the protégé's needs

Using this model, it is hard to argue against peer mentoring.

If the role of mentor is as described then this will help us in finding mentors – and conversely assessing our own suitability to become one. Clutterbuck provides a checklist. He suggests we look for a mentor who:

1. Already has a good record for developing others
2. Has a genuine interest in seeing people advance and can relate to their problems
3. Has a wide range of current skills to pass on
4. Has a good understanding of the organisation; how it works and where it is going
5. Combines patience with interpersonal skills and an ability to work in an unstructured programme
6. Has sufficient time to devote to the relationship
7. Can gain a protégé's respect
8. Has his or her own network of contacts and influence

It is regarded as healthy practice that mentor relationships have clear beginnings and endings. It is not uncommon for these relations to develop into friendships which last for years. The original relationship is one of considerable responsibility – frequently set up at the request of the organisation and with the ultimate goal of benefiting the organisation.

Mentoring relationships in large commercial organisations are frequently based around specific pieces of work or clearly defined projects. This perhaps gives a focus to professional growth. Where the mentoring relationship uses the day to day experiences as dictated by day to day pressures of work in a non profit NGO then the focus might be rather different. Once again we come across the concept of personal growth for the sake of it – a part perhaps of the value base of our organisations. The mentoring relationship can aid personal growth across as wide a spectrum of life as both mentor and protégé decide.

Suggestions for training

- Ask participants to consider how they might use a mentor relationship. What issues would they consider it beneficial to discuss with a mentor. How "deep" would they be prepared to go?

3.4.3 Counselling

Counselling is another word which we find being interchanged with others and being used in a range of different contexts. For the purposes of this section, we will take it to mean a process or interaction, used within a range of relationships, which assists a person in thinking through an issue or problem. We will not discuss here the professional counselling which brings a range of specialist skills albeit based on the principles of active listening described below. In this section, the term client is used as this is the one used, in English, by professionals in the field

As such counselling techniques are used by leaders, managers, coaches, mentors and a whole spectrum of peer relationships.

Counselling is basically about solving problems. It frequently follows the progression:

Contract – Exploration – Understanding – Action – Review

A contract is an agreement between the counsellor and client. It needs to cover time constraints, limits of confidentiality and expectations about the process.

Exploration is the phase where active listening is the key. The mnemonic EARS may be of help here:

Encourage
Ask
Reflect
Summarise

During the understanding phase, the aim is to make sure that both counsellor and client understand the issues clearly and fully. Paraphrasing, encouraging specificity, challenging contradictions and clarifying implications are all part of the process.

Action: This is the main problem solving phase and it may involve drawing the problem using a mind map or flow chart. It might involve a range of problem solving questions (eg SWOT – Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, and Threats), a then-and-now-analysis or starting with the objective (the solution) and working backwards.

Review: If you agree to follow up the counselling session after an agreed period of time, you will introduce an element of supported accountability for the decisions made. You will also ensure that the ongoing support is monitored.

Warning. Counselling can result in a range of outcomes. The client may feel good and motivated to follow through the agreed actions. The s/he may however only have come as far as having a fuller understanding of the problem but needs further specialist help in resolving it. But in some cases the client may feel even more unsettled then previously. A major problem may have been exposed and a way forward may not be obvious.

From the counsellors point of view, there may be great satisfaction in having helped a team member or colleague, but the counsellor may also feel burdened with the client's problem. There may be personal growth through empathising with the client but there may also be shock and distress.

In professional counselling, supervision and support for counsellors is crucial. As a manager in a counselling role, it is essential that you consider your own support structure. **If you are unsure about your ability to deal with problem then seek external help.**

4. The management of processes

4.1 Introduction

In previous sections some emphasis was placed on the core values of a youth organisation. Accordingly decisions about the management of an organisation including the structure itself should be carefully considered. It is essential to ensure that all the issues which may be concerned with values are retained and incorporated into the processes employed in the running of the organisation. As an example imagine the situation where young people are being trained in management: would arguments for the purchase of computers or mountain bikes always take precedence over improvement in youth counselling and the employment of extra staff? In some research from the corporate sector, the results shows a strong tendency, in negotiations over expenditure, towards the purchase of equipment over extra spending on staff or infrastructure. Would the decision makers of your youth organisation have the same priorities? What effect do the values of your organisation have on such decisions?

Peter Drucker, who has been writing on the subject of management for fifty years, believes that one constant error over the last decades has been the assumption, explicit or implicit, that all management is business management. Those involved as professionals or volunteers in youth organisations should be aware that that sometimes it is the corporate sector that turns its attention to the voluntary or not for profit sector as a source of development and information for management training.

4.2 Managing the Organisation

Management and managing became the focus of attention at the end of the nineteenth century as a response to the ever increasing size of organisations. The issues which were then debated among scholars and practitioners alike still hold today. Max Weber, a German sociologist, in his work on "The Theory of Social and Economic Organisation" was more concerned about power and authority but his comment on bureaucracy has been most examined by management writers. The advantages and disadvantages of Weber's ideas are discussed below.

According to Weber, tasks within organisations are allocated as official duties among the various positions. This ensures that there is a clear division of labour and a high level of specialisation. Translating this into modern language in a youth organisation would mean specialising in specific activities. As a result Weber would have claimed that a uniformity of decisions and actions is achieved through formally established rules and regulations. The implied advantage is that impersonal or objective orientation ensures that staff and volunteers dealt with everyone in a similar and presumably fair manner. Youth organisations would perhaps reject the language, tenor and even all of the principles of Weber because his values are the antithesis of youth culture. However, the youth organisation manager may still identify with elements of this kind of thinking within her/his operation.

Employment by the organisation according to Weber, was based on technical qualifications and constituted a lifelong career for the officials. Clearly this is fundamentally different from organisations staffed by volunteers in that contract periods are short by choice or necessity. It is also far less true for the commercial sector in the late 1990's and early 2000's. than when Weber wrote.

In summary the implied advantages of Weber's thinking are:
Specialisation
Hierarchy of authority
System of rules
Impersonal or objective culture.

The opposing view of Weber's thinking would be that there is an over emphasis on rules and procedures, implying that record keeping and paperwork may become more important than the objectives. In a youth organisation the risk of systems taking precedence over people has already been emphasised. Such an approach will also risk the possibility of paid staff or volunteers developing a dependence upon status and symbols. Procedures may be concealed from those not directly involved in order to increase status or power. In addition, initiative may be stifled by systems. Inflexibility runs counter to the changing circumstances of young people in particular, along with many other groups and organisations.

The word "officials" used in the above may be translated as managers, employees or volunteers. Given that youth organisations need to maintain their core values within their structure, decisions must be made which avoid the criticisms shown above and yet ensure an effective organisation. We can all take comfort from the generally accepted view that there is no one best method of managing and therefore no one best management structure.

4.2.1 Management structure

Youth organisations like any organisation manage through processes around a structure. It should be emphasised the word structure should not be equated with formal or rigid. The structure may well be formal, traditional and hierarchical as implied by Weber, but equally it could be designed on a project basis or even as suggested by one participant in an youth Organisational Management course as chaotic but effective. Networking also has an effect on some youth operation structures. In summary a youth organisation may use models common in the corporate and statutory sectors or may have designed a unique structure to suit its specific national or international purposes. Whatever the structure there should be conscious awareness of it.

Common and fundamental questions associated with structure are:
What is the purpose and strategy of the organisation?
What internal and external policies affect its work?
How are the various tasks to be divided among the persons concerned?
How much specialisation and concentration of tasks is desirable or necessary?
How many establishments or sites are required nationally or internationally to implement the policy and strategy of the organisation?
How much decision making should be devolved from the centre in large, and particularly international, organisations?
Depending on the answers to these question then decisions on the creation or evolution of the following may be appropriate. It is important to be aware that divisions between one type of structure and another may be fluid rather than rigid. Consider the simple divisions below.

1 **Tall hierarchies** are, as the name suggests, built on a multi layer system and often formal basis with high degrees of specialisation at both functional and operational levels. Such traditional structures are accepted as the form which best fits the military model or that implied by Weber. Some international youth organisations may fit into this description.

2 **Flat structures** have been a recent response to the downsizing of businesses in order to increase efficiency and profitability. Are these appropriate structures in an NGO environment? Using the language of advocates of formal structures, flat structures imply wider spans of control. Given the use of volunteers the principle may be valid. There are also arguments for this structure being most appropriate to the learning and development of staff.

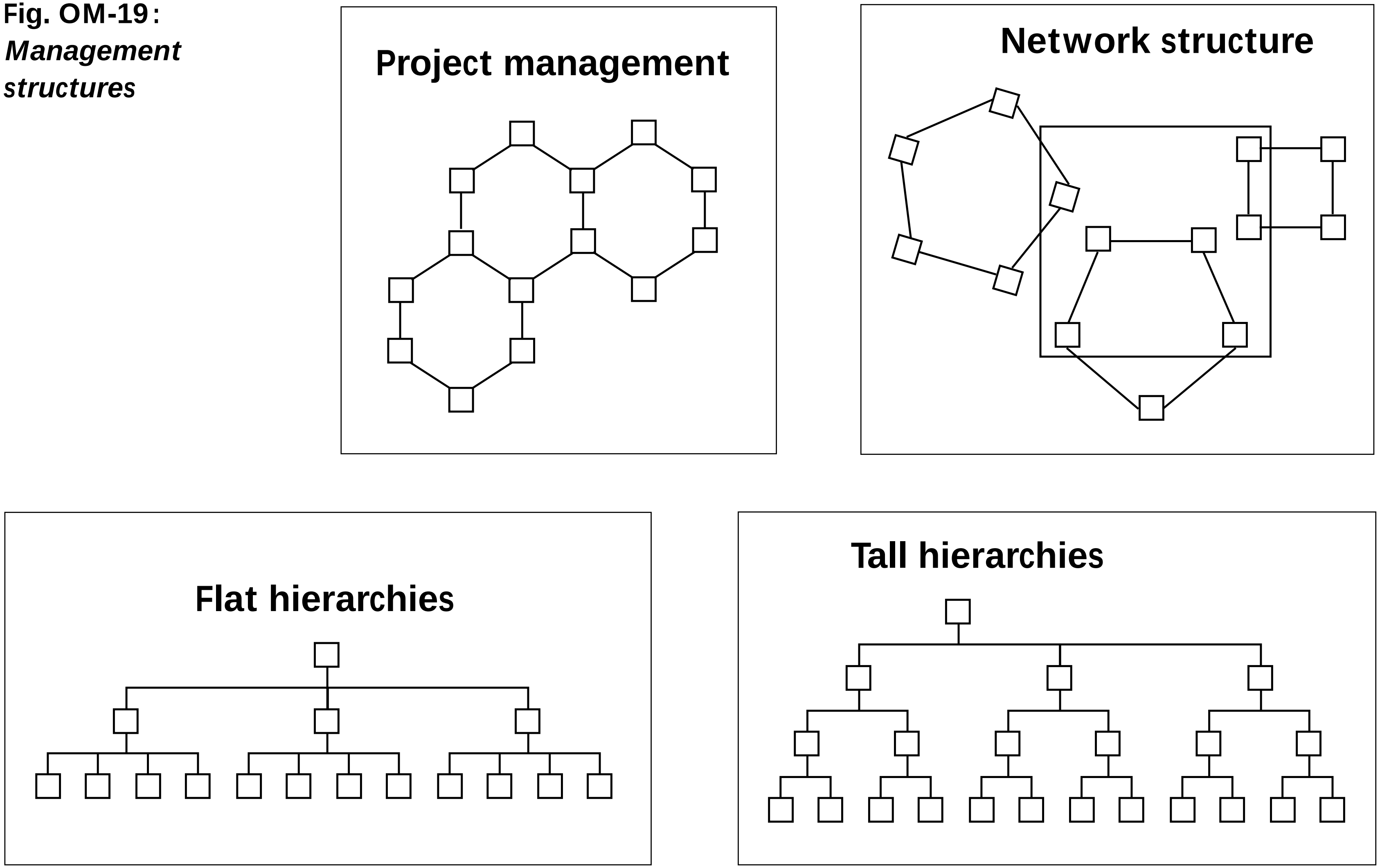
3 **Project management structures** are designed to be fluid and respond to specific and sometimes short term needs. The implication is that teams may be formed for particular projects and then abandoned. By implication, individuals may be members of more than one project team where hierarchy is subservient to achievement. Would this principle fit volunteers and paid staff in co-ordinated activities?

4 **Network structures** contain some of the elements of a project structure but extend to and sometimes incorporate other organisations. The communication demanded would therefore be within the organisation and beyond it to individuals and groups who themselves belong to separate organisations. Networking among youth organisations may be formally or informally established but would at least be a structured system of organisations with compatible goals and sympathies.

Suggestions for training

- Ask individuals to draw an organisation chart of the main functions of their organisation and compare results within and between individuals.
- Use the organisation diagrams illustrated without using any labels at outset to encourage comparisons with participants' youth organisations.

Fig. OM-19:
Management structures



4.3 Systems Management

The idea of systems in management has biological antecedents. The principle of a systems approach is based on the view that the organisation is a unified and directed system of interrelated parts. Advocates of systems theory may argue that the ability to manage diversity increases the flexibility of an organisation. Systems may be closed and rigid or flexible and open according to the desires of the management of the organisation concerned.

Systems theory comes from the work of biologists like Ludwig von Bertalanfy who proposed the term “systems theory” in 1951. His ideas were elaborated by Boulding who proposed a nine level hierarchy of systems according to the complexity and stage of development of each level.

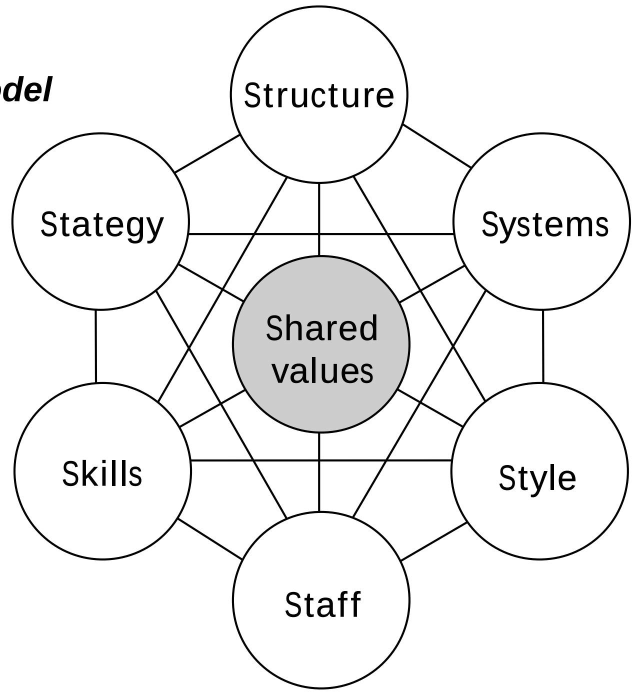
There is no universally accepted distinction made by management commentators between system and process. Accordingly, practitioners use terms like “communication system” and “training system” to describe parts of the management process.

The significance of the term system is the recognition that organisations are complex and dynamic social bodies with interdependencies both internally and externally.

While the ideas of systems may appear abstract the value to the organisation is twofold. It focuses thinking on the organisation as a dynamic holistic model and allows managers to decide upon and implement the most appropriate management processes within the whole.

The focus for the youth organisation should be on the interaction of staff, volunteers, and members, taking into account the environment, external and internal, in which they all operate. In the consideration of any approach defined as a system, a youth organisation would probably wish to incorporate the ideas of pluralism rather than a unitary approach. In this context the consulting firm of McKinsey and Co. has proposed the Seven-S model for a successful organisation where the emphasis is on the equality and interdependence of the factors shown in the diagram. Would the term staff cover both the volunteer and paid employee in this context?

Fig. OM-20:
Seven-S model



Source: Mullins, Laurie J. (1999) Management and Organisational Behaviour, p. 863, 5th ed. London: Pearson Education. ISBN: 0-273-63552-2

4.4 Organisation development (OD)

As the comment on Systems Management has illustrated the organisation should be dynamic and adapt to the needs which it exists to meet. Moreover, there is evidence that in business organisations, emphasis on the management of people does improve the performance of an organisation. Given the underlying values of organisations concerned with young people this may be accepted, but well researched evidence is not always available and may be replaced by belief and assumption.. Managers of youth organisations may be encouraged by the research described below.

Work carried out by Malcolm Patterson and his colleagues, drawing on the work of the Sheffield Effectiveness Programme, indicates a strong positive relationship between employee attitudes, organisational cul-ture, human resource management practices and organisational performance. The report has had a profound impact on strategic thinking and has been used by many organisations to shape their people management agendas.

The Sheffield researchers have drawn on data from an ongoing 10 year study (1991-2001) exam-ining market environment, organisational charac-teristics and managerial practices in more than 100 manufacturing firms in the UK. Their overall aim has been to determine which factors princi-pally influence business effectiveness. A youth organisation may easily substitute the term organisational effectiveness.

The researchers compared fluctuations in profits and productivity between these firms over the years and measured the variations in these changes. The variations were then studied in relation to particular managerial practices. They found that job satisfaction and organisational commitment, supervisory support, autonomy and training accounted for a small percentage of productivity variation. By comparison researchers were able to attribute 29 per cent of the variation in productivity over a three to four year period to the human relations dimension of the organisation.

If this case study emphasises no more than the fundamental issue that the organisation's development plans should be people based it will serve its purpose. It may seem an obvious statement but focussing on, for example, technology or external (political) relations as the main basis of development plans is not unknown, even in organisations which describe themselves as people centred.

Classic management text books assume stability of employment and long term contracts. In the 1980's and 1990's more attention has been paid to a management environment of short term or uncertain contracts. Work in these areas is nearer the reality of the volunteer's situation.

The problems associated with sometimes arduous conditions of employment, low income and high staff turnover are well understood by youth organisations. Long term solutions for individuals are by definition inappropriate when dealing with short term contracts. The emphasis is thus more likely on job interest than career development (at least within the organisation).

In addition governance by a board of volunteers who may have a range of motivations for participation, demands specific approaches to organisational development. While the principles outlined below provide a useful guide, individual needs will be related to the specificity of the management board concerned.

Organisation development is concerned with medium and longer term strategies to ensure the following:

Problem solving within the time-scale agreed.
Structural changes which may be necessary to achieve changed or additional policies.
Optimising the communication inside and beyond the organisation to promote effectiveness and avoid discord.

Among the management processes which may be put in place to ensure the desired improvement in organisational performance the following may be value to a youth organisation.

- The creation of quality circles where the objective is to examine all elements of organisation and service provided with a view to improvement. The essence of such groups is that they should be devoid of all sense of hierarchy or authority. Ordered and logical analysis is less important than the enthusiasm for improvement.

- Asking paid staff, volunteers and users of the services provided for their view in a structured or semi – structured manner may also be of value. Questionnaires or interviews using standard questions are both valid techniques

- Holding meetings to ensure that individual and group development are consistent with the organisation's needs. The issue of organisational needs and its relevance, or even conflict with the perceived development need of individual volunteers should be predicted and resolved at the planning and implementation stages.

4.5 Decision making and policy development

The issues involved in decision making and policy making are many and complex. With the emphasis on management process, the structure of the organisation is a prime factor. In large organisations there is a risk that decision making is a remote process.

There is a risk of alienation of those involved at some distance. Where distance may be defined by geography or by structure. In addition the comments below should be related to those in section 3 on the management of people and on the issue of leadership in particular.

Decisions are not made in a vacuum. There are normally strong influences exerted by:
The past collective experience of the organisation
Current problems, perceived or real, of the organisation
Personalities of the decision makers
The belief that the organisation is part of a system as described above, whether rigid or flexible.

The effect of any decision should be considered:
– in relation to the time scale of the desired change or implementation of a plan of action vis-à-vis the morale of the staff involved.
– in the case of a youth organisation, relative to all the stakeholders concerned

The popular image of one powerful person (usually a man) sitting in isolation behind a desk and deciding the fate of a whole organisation is far from reality. In deciding to decide the questions posed below are paramount:

How large is the gap between the current and the desired state of affairs?
What is the priority in making a decision on issue A as against B etc.?
Is the decision easy to make? Alternatively, is the problem easy to solve?
How long is the interval between taking the decision and putting it into effect?
Could the problem resolve itself over time?

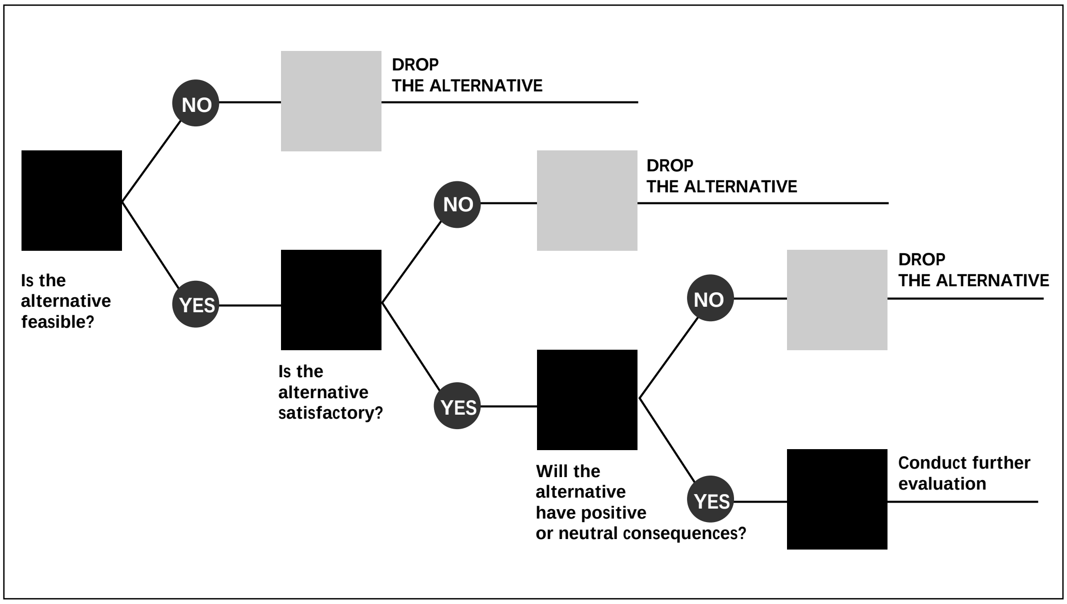
Combining the concept of management processes with decision making, two major divisions are suggested.

The first is the establishment of a method or mechanism for dealing with routine or predictable decisions.
The second is the consideration of decision making in non routine issues.

The difference between the two may also be termed programmed and non programmed decisions. Setting up a process of consultation within the structure and considering feedback on previous decisions is one method of dealing with "standard" decision making. The compromise is that a process has been established but at least some individuals may feel that they have insufficient discretion in the process. The process may involve decision making recommendations at individual, team or unit level. Unit in this sense could mean a local youth organisation.

Decision making runs on a continuum from certainty through risk to uncertainty and from high to low control on the part of the managers of the organisation. In non routine decision making the managers concerned have to assess the risk of the outcomes in deciding in various ways. Whether an exact mechanism for emergency decision making is possible to specify, remains in doubt. Sometimes decisions have to be made immediately and locally without reference to the structure and the learning from the decision is entirely retrospective. This challenge at least should be recognised and would form part of management training. The process established to optimise decision making effectiveness is fundamentally related to the concentration or devolution of

Fig. OM-21: *Decision making*



Source: p. 250 in Stoner, J.A.F. and Freeman, R.E. and Gilbert, D.R. (1995) Management, 6th ed., London: Pearson Education Ltd. .

power within the organisation and to the levels of policy development agreed or practised.

Suggestions for training

- Ask participants to write down the decisions or type of decisions which they make and whether this decision making is routine or ad hoc.
- Verify the perception of formal authority in the decision making process. Is there within the participants' organisation a recognised process for individual and collective decision making?
- Ask participants to describe in writing a decision to be made – one sentence – and then apply the decision making questions of the model in OM-21.

4.6 Communication and information

Organisations are often described as having channels of communication. There may be the automatic assumption that the channels of communication are an integral part of the organisation's management structure.

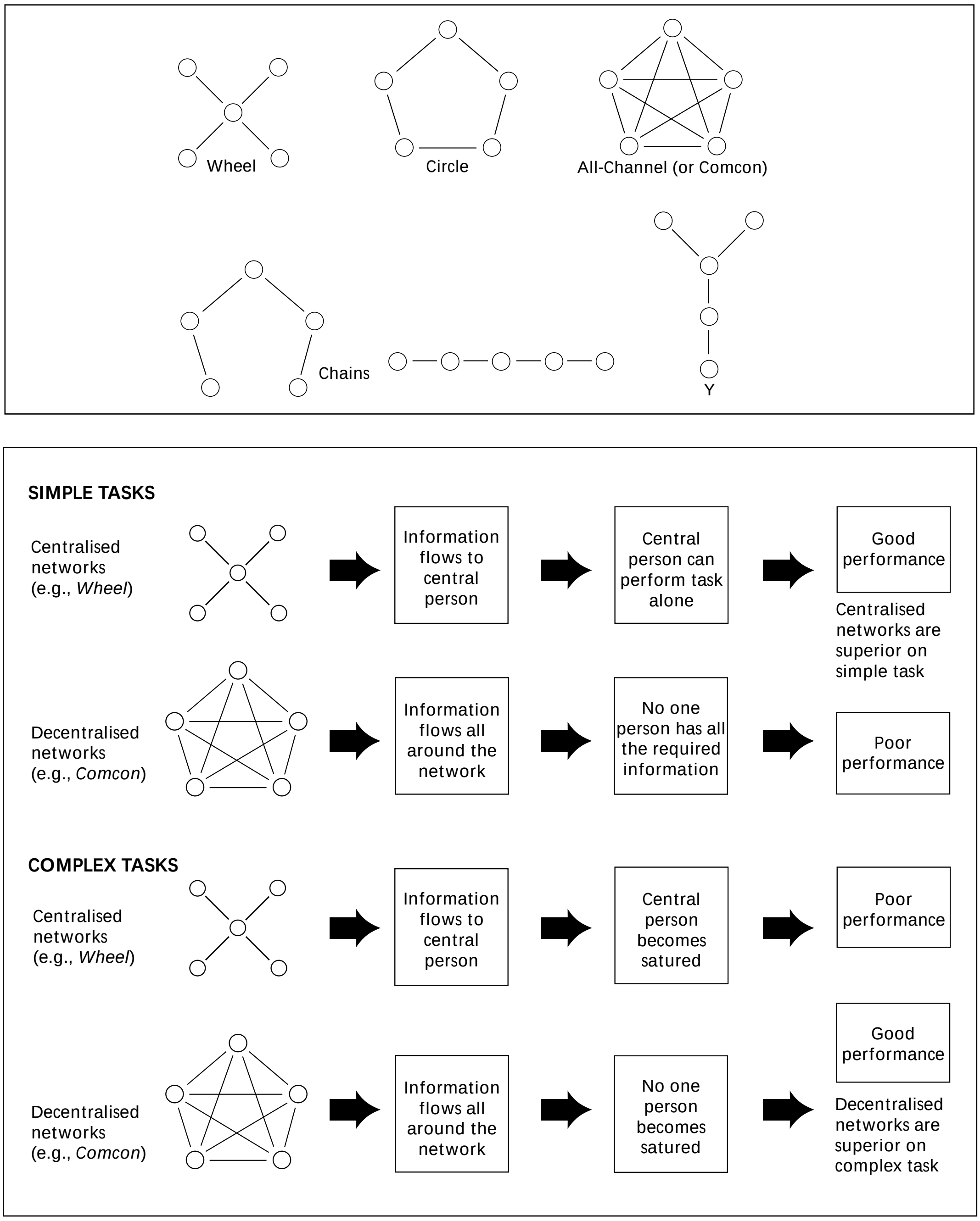
Communication by definition includes the transfer of information. Henry Mintzberg has emphasised the importance of communication in the management process. He proposes:

Interpersonal roles – where managers act as the leader of their part of the organisation. He refers to studies which demonstrate that managers spend 45% of their time with peers, 45% with people outside their units or immediate organisation and 10% with their superiors. Would this be true of a local youth organisations, or a national or international organisation?

Informal roles – where the author asserts that managers seek information from any group or individual which may be relevant to his/her job. The manager also disseminates important information in return both within and beyond the organisation. Methods and techniques of communication are also included.

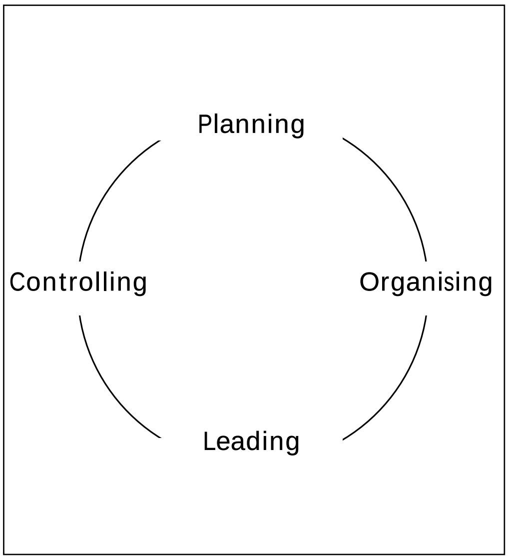
Decision roles – where a manager implements new plans, allocates resources and communicates the rationale of decision made to others within and beyond the organisation.

Fig. OM-22: *Communication networks*



Source: Mullins, Laurie J. (1999) Management and Organisational Behaviour, p. 489-490, 5th ed. London: Pearson Education. ISBN: 0-273-63552-2

Fig. OM-23



There are many models of communication related to management process. Some revolve around the idea of sender or source, through encoding, down or through a channel, to decoding and receiver. Following the analogy of radio signals the model then speaks of transmission back to the sender who then becomes the receiver.

Following the logic of radio signals some writers use the term noise to imply some kind of distortion of the message between receiver and sender. The word noise may be a euphemism for perception of receiver or sender, ie the encoding and decoding stages may be affected by hierarchy, rumours, inconsistent policy, or more fundamentally the lack of a recognised management process for the transmission of information or even confusion in the cycle described above.

The illustration OM-22 describes two communication networks and assesses them in relation to simple and complex tasks. The wheel or star is the most centralised network and proposed for simple tasks and problems. The circle is the most decentralised, suggests little control and low leadership predictability. The claim is that the circle better embraces change and suits complex problem solving.

The “all channel” or “comcon” network is also decentralised and involves full discussion and participation. Under pressure it may revert to a wheel type.

The Y or chain network may be suitable for simple problem solving with little interaction in the group. Research suggests low to moderate levels of satisfaction within a group.

4.7 Knowledge and learning

Communication is inextricably linked with knowledge and information. In the modern business world the relationships between knowledge, power and competitive advantage are the subject of analysis and debate. Since youth organisations are not concerned with competitive advantage the issues of communication are further explored below in the context of the learning organisation. Because of the importance of learning in a youth oriented culture the inclusion of Learning Organisations in this section as well as in Section 4 has been deliberate. The treatment and analysis are however related to the management of others in the previous section and to the process in this.

The Learning Organisation

The corporate sector has taken an interest relatively recently in the optimum means of disseminating information and knowledge within the organisation. Shell was one of the early promoters of the principles.

The British based consulting group David Skyrme Associates in trying to suggest a definition to assist managers have proposed the following:

Learning organisations are those that have in place systems, mechanisms and processes, which are used to continually enhance capabilities of those who work for them or with them and to achieve sustainable objectives for that organisation and the communities in which they participate.

The objectives for which this learning is being advanced should also be extended to the total environment of the organisation.

While the authors may not define the word community in the same way as a youth leader the fact that it is used suggests an additional emphasis for those involved in the enhancement of young people.

The writers also list the following important points. Learning organisations:
Are adaptive to their external environment
Continually enhance their capability to change and adapt
Develop collective as well as individual learning
Use the results of learning to achieve better results.

Arie de Geus (in Senge 1990) described learning as the only sustainable competitive advantage. How should this statement be translated into the culture of youth organisations? Should they design a management process which ensures the constant sharing of knowledge and, if so, for which purposes? Can it be assumed that the sharing of knowledge and the transfer of skills always takes place in a co-operative atmosphere? Is the competence of the individuals and teams within the organisation likely to be enhanced by this knowledge transmission and sharing?

Peter Senge (1990) defines the learning organisation as "an organisation that is continually expanding its capacity to create its future. For such an organisation it is not enough to merely survive. Survival learning or what is more often termed adaptive learning is important – indeed is necessary. But for a learning organisation adaptive learning must be joined by generative learning, learning that enhances our capacity to create".

Given the objective of this section on process and system the following management processes and associated procedures or methods are suggested. The principles have been borrowed from David Skyrme and adapted for youth organisations. Skyrme emphasises the role of culture in the organisation. A culture which assumes co-operation and exchange underlies these suggestions. Since previous sections deal with culture, internal, external and its ramifications then further exploration is not attempted here.

- Strategic Planning. Approaches to planning which may be novel or unconventional. Youth organisations may be well placed to attempt different kinds of thinking in this area. Time and other resources therefore should be allocated to set up experiments using different communication methods and thereafter measure their effectiveness.

- Analysis of Internal and External Environment. As part of a process of continuous monitoring all key factors should be examined including elements which may at first not appear to be of prime relevance to a youth organisation, like technology and political factors.

- Information and Knowledge Management. Use techniques which identify audit, value (cost benefit) and exploit information as a resource (termed IRM or Information Resource Management). Information may originate from internal sources, be contributed by other managers or derive from conventional written information or electronic information such as the Internet.

- Team and Organisation Development. Facilitators may be used to help groups with work, job and organisational design and team development. Objectives include reinforcing values, developing vision, cohesiveness and creating a climate of stretching goals, sharing and support.

- Performance Measurement. Creating appropriate indicators to measure performance, those which provide a balanced and fair system within a youth organisation. A measurement system must be positive and encourage further investment in learning.

- Rewards and Recognition Systems. Introduce processes and systems which recognise acquisition of new skills and enhance team work as well as individual effort. Ensure that success is well publicised to encourage further development.

Tools and Techniques. Youth organisations will be familiar with many of the following but they should be related to the encouragement of learning.
Inquiry – interviewing, seeking information
Creativity – brainstorming, associating ideas
Making sense of situations – organising information and thoughts
Making choices – deciding courses of action
Observing outcomes – recording, observation
Re-framing knowledge – embedding new knowledge into mental models, memorising.

Collective learning requires skills for sharing information and knowledge and includes:

Communication, especially across organisational boundaries

Listening and observing
Mentoring and supporting colleagues
Taking a holistic perspective – seeing the team and organisation as a whole
Coping with challenge and uncertainty.

Suggestions for training

- Use the six processes listed above, Inquiry to Re-framing knowledge as the methodology for solving a participant presented problem.

4.8 Strategic planning

Choosing to make a strategic plan will have a significant effect on the influence an organisation has on society. It will influence any other type of planning and should have an effect on practical operations of an organisation.

4.8.1 Why planning is important

There is at least some agreement on the statement that in general youth organisations are playing an increasing role in society. However it is also important to note that this does not make things easier. On the contrary, the environment in which youth organisations operate is not a stable one but in constant evolution.

There are also other "internal" aspects that it might be useful to mention here:
– changing numbers and/or background of members
– lack of resources
– poor human resource practise
– lack of direction in the organisation's activities or programme

Some of the above statements are common problems of many youth organisations around Europe and they clearly show a need for planning.

The increasing importance of youth organisations creates the need for better managed organisations, prepared to answer to the challenges of society. An ever changing environment requires organisations which can also change and adapt to maintain an influence and continue to provide services.

4.8.2 What is strategic planning?

There are different definitions for strategic planning. Michael Allison and Jude Kaye in their book "Strategic planning for Non profit organisations" (1997), give two very basic definitions:

"Strategic planning is a management tool and like any management tool, it is used to help the organisation to do a better job". Then they provide a more elaborate definition that includes some of the key aspects of this kind of planning: "Strategic planning is a systematic process through which an organisation agrees on – and builds commitment among key stakeholders to – priorities which are essential to its mission and responsive to the operating environment".

It has already being explained in previous chapters how management practises used in business can also be applied to youth organisations. In the same way practises in youth organisations are also relevant to business. As previously mentioned youth organisations have a distinctive aspect – their values – which can be a key difference from profit making organisations. When using a management tool borrowed from the commercial sector the values of the organisation have to be taken into consideration in every decision. The crucial point when applying commercial business tools in the voluntary sector is to ensure that the tools do not undermine the organisations values and principles. In other parts of this T-kit some emphasis has been placed on values. An extra definition is proposed here: values are standards or principles, ideas about the worth or importance of something or of certain qualities, especially when they are shared by a group.

Every organisation, regardless of its type, has its own distinctive values, but in the non-profit sector they are perhaps different – or just given a different profile to those of the commercial sector. In theory at least, youth organisations promote values which pervade the whole organisation, including the fund raising, communication and volunteer and staff recruitment

functions. The values of a youth organisation are normally established by the founders and moulded and shared by other or subsequent members.
The following notes summarise the different steps of strategic planning but before engaging in such an activity, it is important that the organisation takes some time to analyse its readiness. Consider for example the implications of the following:
– strategic planning takes time, do we have it? do we want to allocate it?
– strategic planning takes resources. are they available? do we want to devote them to planing?
– strategic planning needs commitment. Are we taking into consideration everybody when starting the process: volunteers, board, staff, clients....
– strategic planning needs co-ordination. do we have the right people to lead it?
– resistance to planning: is everybody in favour of strategic planning? How do we get everyone on board?

Suggestions for training

- On a sheet participants should review the implications of the five aspects listed above and if their organisation is ready for strategic planning. Such a review might then result in a document being drawn up to take to a General Assembly or equivalent, where the decision should be taken.
- In the event of the organisation not being ready, participants should try to study in more detail which are the problems so they can be solved and strategic planning can be developed to a further stage.

4.8.3 Strategic planning steps

Strategic planning is an ongoing process which involves, among other actions, gathering of information, discussions and negotiations, decision taking..... in order to produce a written document which may be called a strategic plan. However the process does not stop there; once the plan is written it needs to be put into practise and it needs systematic review. The planning period can be varied but a good average would be a three year plan. Of course regular evaluation is essential at all stages and the outcomes of that evaluation have to be incorporated into the process.
Seven essential steps of the process are suggested below, followed by more information to support the group in performing the different steps.

1. Setting the basis for strategic planning
– who is going to be involved?
– how is it to be done?
– what do we need?

2. Vision and Mission: development or review
– Agree on a vision for the organisation
– Writing (or reviewing) a mission statement

3. Assessing the environment
– Study strengths and weaknesses
– Study opportunities and threats

4. Establishing strategic issues
– Decide on priorities
– Write goals and objectives
– Prepare a budget

5. Write goals and objectives

6. Writing the strategic plan

7. Implementing the plan
– Define, write and implement operational plans

8. Evaluation

Step 1. Setting the basis for strategic planning
Even assuming readiness for strategic planning there are still certain important aspects to take into consideration:

Who is going to be involved?
This question may have different answers depending on the organisation's size. In a small organisation it could be interesting that all staff and management board are present as well as a representation of the rest of the organisation's stakeholders (a stakeholder is anybody who cares, or should care, for the organisation, including staff, volunteers, board, clients, founders, community leaders, former staff and volunteers, suppliers etc.). In big organisations this is not possible, so then the answer may be to set up a planning committee, which of course should also represent all the organisation's stakeholders. In any case it is important that the group includes a variety of people, and especially the executive director and the members of the board.

In any case, everybody in the organisation needs to be involved in one way or another, unless the plan is meaningful to everybody then it will never succeed.

How is it to be done?
The description given here of strategic planning is one of many. Different authors have different approaches to it. Some of them going into greater detail and considering more steps than others, or simply distributing them in different ways. This is significant in the sense that this tool cannot be used in a rigid way. On the contrary it is meant to be flexible to adapt to a variety of organisations. So here it is time to have an overall view of it and decide which parts should be adapted to correspond the organisation's reality.

What do we need?
Strategic planning takes time and resources. However this should never stop the organisation from doing that which is needed to produce a plan. Recognition needs to be given to the involvement of staff and volunteers in this new task and to the resources which will be needed such as money for meetings, information etc. Allocation of responsibilities among the people involved is also required.

Finally when possible, it might be useful for some organisations, to involve an external consultant, who might help to facilitate the process.

Step 2. Vision and Mission: development or review

Now it is time to dream. If we are planning we need to know where we want to go, so our planning can have a direction. To define where we want to be we will use the vision of the organisation, which can be defined as a shared vision of success and it is the pursuit of this success which inspires and motivates people to work together.

We can define 2 types of vision:

– one which refers to the organisation internally and then we will have to imagine how do we want the organisation to be.
– one external vision which focuses on what the world will be if our organisation achieves its purpose.

The vision of the organisation should challenge and inspire the group to work together to the utmost of their capabilities in order to achieve the purpose of the organisation.

This purpose is sometimes called “Mission” and it can be defined as "the reason for being of the organisation” (Allison and Kaye, 1997) or we could also say that Mission is the role of the organisation in respect of the vision.

Obviously there are organisations that already have a clear mission statement. If this is true, then this is a good time to review it.

Writing a Mission statement can be quite a challenging task and it will probably take some time. However its importance should be considered, not only because it is an essential element for strategic planning but also because the process can help the organisation to involve the members in debating and agreeing on the reason for their work.

Of course there are different opinions on the contents of a Mission Statement. Different authors emphasise different aspects. In summary then, a mission statement (sometimes called purpose statement) could include:
– What the organisation intends to achieve.
– What we are good at. As a distinctive characteristic compared to other organisations.
– What we do, who we do it for and how we do it
– It should reflect the values of the organisation and its specificity.

Mission statements should be concise, clear and attractive. Here we have some examples of mission statements of different youth organisations:

IFM-SEI – International Falcon Movement-Socialist Educational International – seeks, through its member organisations, to develop children and young people with a critical awareness of the world today. It strives to educate children and young people according to the basic principles of tolerance, equality and friendship.

TEJO – World Organisation of Young Esperantist – aims to improve understanding between young people from various nationalities and speaking different languages by promoting the use of the international language Esperanto.

YDC – Youth for Development and Co-operation – aims to strengthen youth structures that forge co-operation between young people, empowering them to actively shape their current and future livelihoods in order to reach a development that is environmentally sustainable, economical accessible and socially just.

YEE – Youth and Environment in Europe – The aim of YEE is to promote lifestyles which are in harmony with nature, to protect and promote the proper use of resources in the world, to involve everybody into decision making process and provide education on the above mentioned ideas.

Once the mission is written, everybody involved in the process would probably experience a bigger feeling of ownership of it and therefore a stronger commitment towards the organisation. It is important that is published and also that it is in some way incorporated into the organisation's constitution or statutes.

Step 3. Assessing the environment.
The organisation exists in an environment, which has already been described as a changing one. This environment has an influence in the performance of the organisation; the organisation takes things from the environment and is affected continually by others.

Strategic planning demands a system which forces the organisation to respond to those changes, which in turn requires an analysis of the external environment such as: politics, economic trends, demographics, legal issues, community issues, competition with other organisations, change of values and needs of members or beneficiaries.

At the same time it is important to understand the internal situation of the organisation, so that the need for change can be best assessed. When evaluating the internal environment there should be an analysis the organisation in all its activities. Depending on the type of organisation these could be: finance, management, membership, marketing, services, programme and activities.

One useful tool which assists this process is a SWOT analysis, which stands for Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats.

– Strengths: what do we do well?
– Weaknesses: where can we improve?
– Opportunities: what changes have taken place in our environment which might allow us to better achieve our mission?
– Threats: what changes in the environment do we need to guard against or prepare for in doing our work (From Allison and Kaye, 1997)

The SWOT analysis should help us to identify which strengths of the organisation will allow us to make use of the opportunities and which of our weakness we need to eliminate or improve in order not to be affected by the threats. The SWOT analysis can be carried out at the level of the whole organisation or also for specific programmes or departments.

Step 4. Establishing strategic issues
After all the information is gathered in the previous phases, choices have to be made and priorities decided. At this point there may be a need to return a previous phase and do some more research. This phase can sometimes be frustrating, however the outcomes are most rewarding.

Bryson describes strategic issues as "fundamental policy questions affecting the organisation's mandates, mission and values, productivity level or mix, clients, users and payers, costs, financing, management or organisational design". Prioritising these against the mission and vision will begin to put the meat onto the bones of our strategic plan.

It will not be a good idea to take shortcuts in this part of the process. The outcomes of the SWOT analysis can be useful and we should see how the strategic issues identified relate to the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats.

The final step will be to narrow down the options available to realise the organisations primary goals. Once more, different authors give different versions of the essential aspects that have to be taken into consideration.

Henry Migliore et al in their book "Strategic planning for Not-for-Profit organisations" (1994) give the following list:
– Level of staffing/volunteer participation
– Level of resources and funds
– Reputation and level of acceptance in service area
– Clients served
– Quantity of programmes
– Quality of programmes
– Leadership effectiveness
– Quantity and quality of services

Step 5. Write goals and objectives
Discussions about goals and objectives will be pursued during the whole process of strategic planning. However at this point last stage of the process is in sight.

By now most decisions would have been taken and the overall picture of the organisation's direction should be clear. It is time now to agree on concrete measures to achieve the agreed results.

The use of a SMART analysis is of value in the current context. This mnemonic means:

– Specific: they should be written in a concise form that clearly states when, how, and where the situation will be changed.
– Measurable: so the achievement or process can be measured.
– Achievable: that means that the element of challenge has to be present to motivate people but they have to be affordable so as to avoid frustration.
– Relevant and Realistic: in this case the need is to focus on the priorities of the organisation.
– Time-bound: it has to include a time framework in which the objective will be achieved.

The point of commitment has now been reached. Now resource need to be allocated. The allocation of resources is defined in the budget, which is a document that reflects policy decisions, i.e. choosing between scarce resources and defining what the organisation should do. Budgets are normally produced by the board and approved by the higher decision making body of the organisation (General Assembly, Congress....), but again, the greater the involvement of all stakeholders the better the sense of ownership.

Step 6. Writing the strategic plan
If the reader who has decided to engage in strategic planning within their organisation, comes directly to this chapter, s/he will find that there is not a paragraph here to help them. Writing the strategic plan simply means to committing to writing the outcomes of the previous steps.

Perhaps it is better that just one person is in charge of writing. Of course there have to be opportunities for the others to be involved in the process of verification. However at this stage the main decisions have already been taken, so not many changes should be needed, otherwise there is a risk of being engaged in endless drafting process.

As a document which will be used by a big variety of stakeholders it must be user-friendly to assist is the recognition of its ideas. Once the document is ready it should be formally adopted by the board and publicised as widely as possible within the organisation.

There is not a standard model but taking into consideration the steps previously described, a possible structure for the document could include the following headings:

– Introduction
– Mission and vision
– Organisation history and profile
– Strategic issues and core strategies
– Aims and goals (Allison and Kaye)

It may be that some or all of these sections should be written for each department and for the organisation as a whole.

Step 7. Implementing the plan
Now it is the time to set things on motion. Our strategic plan gives us the direction, the timing and the content. In order to implement it we need to develop actions (or operational plans) for each strategic issue. It is here that action verbs are used: for a recruitment strategy decisions on how to advertise the post, job description, number of interviews to candidates, budget for recruitment process ...etc. will be made.

The operational plans go into a greater level of detail than in the strategic plan, but they will ensure that each strategic issue is dealt with in a co-ordinated and effective manner. It is important that operational plans are consistent with the style of the strategic plan. The people who will implement the operational plans have to feel the link of their actions with the organisation's mission, as described in the strategic plan.

Step 8. Evaluation
In strategic planning, evaluation is just another step that will not only complete the process but better than that it will bring new information to the plan and will enable it to be further fined. Strategic planning then becomes an ongoing process of organisational development.

Evaluation needs to be carried out at different stages:

– During the process of producing the strategic plan
– And whilst the plan is being implemented

We have defined strategic planning as a process and therefore the on-going, or cumulative evaluation will not only contribute to the plan itself, but also to the effectiveness of the process. In this sense, there is never really a final or Summative evaluation.

4.9 Financial Management

Finance may be an element of management process which is well understood, with accepted methodologies practised over years. Even in such environments finance may not be universally accepted as an important issue. Important in this context lends itself to many different interpretations but whatever the definition, it should include understanding and involvement.

Understanding may be enhanced by studying the information which follows but will not resolve the issues of involvement. Much has been written and discussed around the idea of ownership. This concept applies no less to finance in all its aspects. Since many managers have had no specific training in finance there is a tendency to leave all related matters to the “experts”. Youth organisations in common with profit making organisations have the same requirement to make financial information available to those affected by financial decisions. The management process should incorporate at least the opportunity for a manager to make a contribution in the form of budget preparation. In order to assist in the discussions about the level of involvement, the following short descriptions of financial statements is offered.

Financial information is presented in many forms according to the needs of the organisation concerned. References may be made to both financial accounts and management accounts. This terminology makes the division between accounting for legal and statutory purposes and accounts which are prepared solely to assist in management decision making. The former category would include balance sheets and profit and loss accounts while the latter may include budgets and cash flow statements. The following is recommended in any management training programme on financial management.

Budgets
Balance Sheets
Income and Expenditure Accounts
Cash Flow Statements.

4.9.1 Budget

This is a financial statement to predict allocation of expenditure against income or a quantitative assessment of the money to be applied to specific activities over a given period. Like Income and Expenditure they can be for a period which suits the organisation. They may be viewed as Income and Expenditure for the future or in a projected rather than historical form. The discipline of completing a budget or assisting in its preparation and then managing within the constraints of the resultant financial plan is the minimum suggested for a manager in any youth organisation. Given that there is often uncertainty about the source, amount and receipt of income, budgets may need to be prepared using conservative predictions (that is higher costs/lower incomes than you would think). The problem of late payments from funding organisations is in the first place a cash flow matter but expenditure on a project or even on fixed overheads may have to be adjusted according to dates and amounts of income. The budget periods therefore may have to be drawn up to provide maximum flexibility in the organisation’s operations. The ability to amend a budget within a specified period and with a given period of notice is an essential feature of youth organisations’ needs. An amended budget is sometimes presented as a forecast.

The whole organisation would normally have a budget and in the case of larger structures with local units of operation then sub or department budgets would also be normal practise. While individual managers may have little influence on total income there should be specific encouragement for involvement in the drawing up and the operation of budgets. Meetings to discuss the results achieved for different periods of expenditure is a valuable management training activity.

Such meetings may also be viewed as part of the decision making of the organisation. Decision making is certainly more associated with the drawing up of budgets. This said, once a budget has been amended the total process of producing, implementing and evaluating the results is still linked to the previously cited planning, organising leading and controlling cycle (Fig 23). The planning and decision making in this sense are expressed in financial terms.

Fig. OM-24: *Example of a NGO budget*

All figures in Euro

		ACCOUNTS	BUDGET
		1998	2 000
	INCOMES		
1	Member Organisations' Contributions	60100	59 000
2	Admin. Grant EU	40000	40 000
3	Admin.Grant EYF	8000	8 000
4	Grant Belgian Government	6000	6 000
5	Interest	3250	3 000
6	Donations/Subscriptions	18 000	15 000
	Subtotal	**135 350**	**131 000**
7	Projects	95 000	120 000
	TOTAL INCOMES	**230 350**	**251 000**
	EXPENDITURES		
8	Permanent and project staff	75 000	80 000
9	Volunteers/Trainees in the office	10 000	12 000
	Subtotal staff	**85 000**	**92 000**
10	Office rent, heating, ...	5 900	6 000
11	PTS	16 850	14 000
12	Equipment	3 200	4 000
13	Staff travel	4 550	5 000
14	Board travel+ Communication	9 000	10 000
15	Annual General Meeting	9 350	9 000
16	External Representation	8 250	6 000
17	Financial committee	1 530	1 000
18	Miscellaneous	3 130	4 000
	Subtotal non-staff	**61 780**	**59 000**
19	Project Expenses (excluding staff and other administration costs)	85 000	100 000
	TOTAL EXPENDITURES	**231 760**	**251 000**
	Surplus/Deficit (no Projects)	-11 410	-20 000
	Surplus/Deficit	**-1 410**	**0**

4.9.2 The balance sheet

The information given in a Balance Sheet reflects the value or worth of an organisation at a particular date. One analogy used is that the clock is stopped at a specific time. These statements are typically prepared on an annual basis. The Balance Sheet provides information on the assets of the organisation. Assets include property, equipment and money owed to the organisation as well as money in the bank. Liabilities include money which the organisation owes to others.

4.9.3 The income and expenditure statement

This statement may be called a Profit and Loss Account or Financial Results. Income and Expenditure may be a more limited type of statement but shows the essentials of money available to the organisation as well as money spent over a given period and may be suitable for a small youth organisation or a local unit of a larger organisation. The end figure would be surplus or deficit for the period. In a commercial operation this would be profit or loss. These statements may be prepared on a quarterly, six monthly or annual basis and thus indicate the position of the organisation over the period concerned. Whatever the terminology the value of the document is as a management tool. Monitoring at intervals and analysing the changes in income, costs and expenditure provide information which is valuable in decision making and future planning.

4.9.4 Cash flow statements

In any organisation, whether for profit or not for profit, it is essential to plan the flow of money in, as well as out. The essence is to predict the balance of funds which will be available in the bank or department budget. At its simplest the last figure shown for the period concerned, very often one month, is the bank balance. Any last figure which predicts a negative number would have to be agreed with the bank or the persons responsible for the funding of the organisation.

4.10 Contracting

Contracts with the organisation may take various forms. In the case of paid staff or volunteers the contracts will incorporate elements of national employment law for the country concerned. Terms and conditions of employment are dealt with in the next chapter and so the emphasis which follows is on contracts for fixed assets like buildings, vehicles, office equipment and machines. As a guide for staff and volunteers alike the management process should incorporate procedures to identify activities which can be conducted entirely within the organisation and as a corollary, reference to the need for professional advice from the organisation's legal or accounting advisers. The following questions will assist in drawing up guidelines and procedures.

What is the value of the asset to be acquired?
Will the asset be owned or hired?
Over what period will the asset be written down? (sometimes known as depreciation – not applicable to all assets)
Does the organisation have an in-house adviser?
Is there a means of verifying the trustworthiness or competence of the business proposing the sale or hire?
Do the organisations' rules define the persons authorised to sign specific types of contracts with third parties.

It is common for example to define the persons or the qualifications of persons who may sign or agree contracts to purchase land or property but is it equally clear in the case of more routine contracts like the hire of photocopiers? The variation on apparently simple contracts on cost terms may be considerable.

4.11 Terms and conditions of employment

Both National and European law makes requirements of organisations in relation to the terms and conditions on which they employ staff. But it is also the sign of a good employer that terms and conditions are agreed, fair and appropriate to the conditions in which staff are working. As values driven organisations, with a focus on the development of people, there is even more need for European youth organisations to demonstrate their commitment to staff though proper procedures and documentation.

A statement of terms and conditions is a personal statement containing the fundamental details of the employment relationship. It does not contain all of the contract between the employer and the employee because policy documents, staff handbooks, job descriptions and other notices are also part of the contract.

Things you need to consider in relation to Terms and Conditions (T&C).

- What is the minimum length of contract which requires T&C to be written?
- By when should the T&C be given to the employee?
- What other documents need to be referred to?

When writing the Terms and Conditions the following pieces of information should be included:

- Who is the employer?
- When does the employment start and end?
- What is the job title? (refer to job description)
- Job location
- Remuneration (pay – when? how?)
- Hours of work (normal hours, exceptions, weekends and evenings, overtime)
- Collective agreements (union agreements)
- What expenses will be paid?
- Will accommodation be provided?
- Holidays (how much? What notice is required?)
- Reporting of absence
- Sick pay arrangements (statutory and organisations own)
- Pension rights
- Retirement age
- Probationary period (when will employee be confirmed in post?)
- Grievance procedure (when an employee is not happy with the way the employer treats them)
- Disciplinary procedure (when the employer is not happy with the employee's behaviour or performance)
- Health and safety requirements
- Work outside of the home country
- Any other arrangements (reference to the staff handbook, notice boards)

The Terms and Conditions should also contain a place for both the employer and the employee to sign and date. The document should be produced in duplicate so that both parties can retain a copy.

There has been some debate about the need for formal terms and conditions for volunteers. However, organisations need to take care that they do not create a situation where they are, in law, employing someone and that the level of pocket money given is seen as payment below the minimum wage.

There is however a principle here which needs to be applied equally to employees and volunteers alike; that is, that anyone working for an organisation should be clear about what their responsibilities are and what expectations exist in relation to quality of their work. Publication and accessibility of all organisation policies on issues related to the work being done should also be considered. An agreed statement of expectations might be one way to make these things clear.

Suggestions for training

- Ask course participants to consider at least one paid and one unpaid worker in their organisation and to review the level of clarity of terms and conditions and/or expectations.
- How do they know this? What procedures are in place, or need to be put in place to improve this situation?

4.12 Managing external relations

Previous sections have alluded to both internal and external relations. A youth organisation would normally have a policy on external relations. Part of any management process should incorporate and reflect the policy. The process would be designed around answers to the following questions:

What is the organisation's policy on external and internal relations?

4

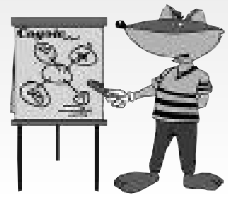
What perceptions are held by external bodies on the purpose and style of the organisation?
Are formal or informal mechanisms or procedures helpful in promoting the policy within the organisation?
Should recommendations be circulated to ensure uniformity of approach when dealing with external bodies?
What is the nature of the external organisations with whom the organisation has constant or regular contact?

Some of the external bodies may be political organisations or government bodies which function with a background of elected members and employed people. The latter may be termed officials or executives. Youth organisations should be aware of the advantages and constraints associated which the democratic process behind such bodies. If the organisation is seeking support, particularly financial support, from such a body then the management process should at least ensure that there is no potential for creating embarrassment by duplication of contact for the same purpose. Likewise, if there are contacts with the corporate sector it may be necessary to ensure that neither the business concerned nor the youth organisation could be negatively affected by potentially conflicting interests.

The Board or managers of an organisation may wish to publicise the external and internal relations policy in a specific document. Alternatively the associated process could be incorporated into the policy on Communication and Information.

Suggestions for training

- Ask participants to list the external bodies with whom they deal or communicate on a regular and irregular basis. Describe the nature of the relationships. Compare the different outcomes and discuss the merits of networking among group members.
- Invite comment on the level of satisfaction of the processes involved as well as the outcomes.
- What is the link between process and outcome?



Appendix 1

Historical and contemporary perspectives of management

Introduction

The brief summary given below is aimed at supplementing the information and argument given in the T-Kit. There is no reference in this review to the specificity of youth organisations. The objective is to provide references to original sources so that managers and trainers using the T-Kit can form their own judgements about application and relevance. Comments on relevance and value to youth organisations on the ideas of certain management commentators are included in the T-kit itself.

Approaches to the study of management and organisations

Management for some writers started from the premise that principles could be verified scientifically and accordingly a body of theory could be developed. The summary which follow divides the various contributions into three periods; Classical or Scientific Management, Human Relations and Modern or Contemporary.

Scientific management

The "school" of scientific management or the classical school included practitioners turned theorists like Frederick Taylor(USA), Henri Fayol (France) and Colonel Lyndall Urwick, (UK). Their positions stemmed from mass production factories and extended to both processes and the structure of the organisation. Arguably they shared a belief that there was a one best way to design organisations and operations. They claimed that their universal principles were scientific in origin. Organisations were accordingly formal in structure and centred around the organisation chart. One overlooked writer of this early period, from the last decade of the nineteenth century to the inter war period, was Mary Parker Follet. Her views which were concerned with social aspects of work and the nature of society were ignored by fellow Americans and Europeans alike because they did not fit the assumptions of mainstream thinking of the time.

H. Fayol (1841-1925)

Fayol was a mining engineer who took over a loss making business and made it profitable. His principles were:-

Responsibility – must be matched with authority
Unity of command – orders should be received from one superior only
Unity of direction – clear policy and clear leadership
Centralisation
Chain of command – clear lines of organisation and clearly stated and understood purpose for each level.

F. W. Taylor (1856 - 1915)

He was concerned with those factors which influenced production. Accordingly the efficient use of tools, optimum factory layout and logical production flow were his preoccupations. His study was at the level of detail, from which he formulated the principles of:

Observing
Recording
Developing

These principles were developed into methods, which were retrospectively called **work study**. Work study is the analysis of operations, their standardisation and timing. The timing led to payment by result based on the principle of a fair day's work for a fair day's pay. Later the title industrial engineering was used.

L. Urwick (1891-1983)

Colonel Urwick published his principles of management in 1938.
The key issues are summarised:

Principle of objective – what is/are the company/business/group/individual trying to achieve.

Principle of correspondence – authority and responsibility must be hand in hand.

Principle of responsibility – a manager/supervisor can never pass on his responsibility to someone else. He/she may delegate, but must always accept responsibility.

The scalar principle – as with Fayol's chain of command.

The principle of span of control – no superior can supervise directly the work of more than six subordinates.

The principle of specialisation – every employee should be confined to one major function or activity.

The principle of definition – every position should be clearly defined in writing.

Urwick spoke of separating long and short term aims. Conflict arose through misunderstanding. The essence here is that man is a rational and economic animal. This was reinforced by the belief that management knows best and senior management knows better than junior management.

It is easy to dismiss the whole of the scientific management approach and to argue that the modern manager has a more enlightened view. Is this true of all managers and organisations? Consider also the effect of British or French imperialism. What kind of management do the former colonies practise? Consider also the emerging economies of Asia, whether democratic or otherwise as well as those of the formerly centrally planned systems of Eastern and Central Europe.

It is clear, however, that the assumption by the earlier writers that their methods were scientific would not now stand any test under the heading of science. They were essentially observations of practitioners reduced to a list which they called principles. While this empirical method may be accepted in a true science, its value in observations of human behaviour is questionable.

Human relations

In the 1920/30s the classical approach started to be overtaken by the School of Human Relations. Among these, mainly organisational psychologists, Maslow, McGregor, Argyris and Bennis, were for the most part operating in the United States from the 1920s to the 1960s. Among the positive findings of this group the following are noteworthy:

A worker is not simply economic man, but also social man and non-material factors are important. These views also corresponded with those of Mary Parker Follet (1868–1933) already mentioned; an example of a woman ahead of her time.

The amount of work which may be carried out may be more related to social, rather than physical characteristics or capacity.

Non economic rewards play a key element in determining motivation and feelings of well-being of employees.

Narrow specialisation is not necessarily the most efficient form of division of labour.

Groups form the basis of informal organisations, which exist within and interacts within, formal organisations. Accordingly an understanding of the behaviour and influence of groups is essential.

Power must be understood as well as authority.

Hierarchical position does not always ensure effective leadership. Leadership style is important.

Good communications are important but difficult to achieve.

In conditions of change the human element is key. Successful change depends upon leadership, consultation and opportunities for participation.

Silverman in trying to summarise the work of the organisational psychologists, sometimes called neo Human Relations School, suggests that – "The best form of organisation is one which attempts to optimise individual and organisational need for satisfaction by means of the following:

- The encouragement of the formation of stable work groups and worker participation in decision making.
- Good communications and expressive supervision.
- Non bureaucratic structures which function by the setting of objectives rather than through a hierarchy of authority".

The human relations approach starts with a study of man's motives and behaviour and from this study criteria are developed to help design and organisation. The design is towards stimulating people to co-operate in achieving business aims. Effective co-operation can only be achieved through willing individuals and groups. Specifically the writers in this group have claimed that their organisations would:

- Achieve objectives while satisfying members of the group (the theory says that equilibrium must be maintained by the creation of satisfaction).

- Encourage high productivity and low absenteeism.
- Stimulate co-operation and avoid industrial strife. (A certain level of disagreement is accepted as constructive).

In this approach the study of organisation becomes the study of behaviour, of how people behave and why they behave in defined ways. These writers hoped to predict behaviour within organisations and to provide guidance in how best to achieve organisational and business goals. Their specific approach was around:

Individual and group productivity;
Individual development;
Job satisfaction.

The behaviourists divided their studies into:

Individual needs and wants
Small group behaviour
Behaviour of supervisors;
Inter-group behaviour.

The work of Mayo, McGregor, and Maslow is worth further study.

Contemporary views

While there is some agreement about the description and classification of previous periods of management thought there is no single accepted description of post 1960's writing. The advent of the multi-national company, globalisation, contributions on management thought from non-western writers, particularly from Japan, have created a diversity of thinking which lends classification more problematical. Arguments about the relevance of Japanese or Korean practices in cultures which are essentially western pluralist in nature add another dimension to management writing and further complexity for the student of the subject.

The notion that business will perform in a desired manner because of the imposition of a single management method, style, structure or even all-embracing philosophy is increasingly being challenged. Single fashions of management advocated by some practitioners, even to-day, are now regarded by academic commentators as extremely suspect. Consider for example the various emphasis placed on techniques, some elevated to a philosophy of management which have been in vogue since the 1960's. Management by Objectives, Discounted Cash Flow, Just in Time, Total Quality Management and Business Process Re-engineering have all been advanced with enthusiasm.

In traditional thinking as expressed by all earlier writers there remains the implicit assumptions of a hierarchy of command. Modern theorists have turned their attention to this supposition and questioned some of its premises. The role of the supervisor or first line manager has, over a period of years, been under scrutiny. Questions which were asked in the 1960s and continued increasingly into the year 2000 have resulted at times from the elimination of this function. Names like team leader have replaced words like foreman or forewoman in some organisations. The supposition is that the person so designated can both participate in the activity of work and motivate and lead others to achieve particular objectives. A further step is to introduce an organisation where there is no labelling or even understanding of this role. This eliminates one level of management completely. Such organisations it is claimed are both more effective and more efficient. The same principle applied to service and not for profit organisations which have senior management specialist functions may reduce the hierarchical model even further. Such changes may also be associated with the reduction in the number of employees in an organisation, referred to as downsizing. Multinational enterprises have been particularly active in adopting the ideas related to flat organisation, arguably for cost cutting reasons rather than the improvement of management effectiveness.

Objective analysis will demonstrate the merits of all these ideas but the inevitable weak link in the system, human behaviour has often proven to be the impediment to the desired progress. Peter Wickens in "The Ascendant Organisation" offers a critique of some of these management initiatives. His experience embraces European, American and Japanese management and should be further considered by those concerned with learning from this century in preparation for the next. Peter Drucker, born in Vienna in 1909 and still writing from an American base in 1999 argues that modern management has not fundamentally changed from the ideas of Taylor almost a century earlier. He speaks of the knowledge worker and suggests that Marx's dignity of work never had any relevance.

The knowledge worker includes managers who themselves are often concerned with repetitive activities or tasks, but where knowledge, scientific or otherwise, is an important ingredient of decision making and leadership. The emphasis on knowledge has given rise to new ideas, for some elevated to the status of theory, like the Learning Organisation which advances continuous learning as the key to success. Many observers however return to Maslow's precept that each person has to be managed in an individual way.

Can the not for profit or voluntary organisation achieve this better than the market led operation?

Appendix 2

Organisational management T-kit Evaluation

We hope you have found this first version of the Organisational Management T-kit helpful and useful. This is the first time that such a publication has been produced within the Partnership Programme and we would welcome your feedback and suggestions for future editions. Your answers will also be used to analyse the impact of this publication. Thank you for completing this questionnaire, your comments will be read with great attention.

How far did this T-kit help you to find theoretical foundations and practical applications of organisational management techniques?

From 0% .... to 100%

You are…
(You may tick more than one option)

☐ A Trainer
○ Local, ○ National or ○ International level

Did you use the T-kit in any of your training activities? Yes ☐ No ☐

If yes…

In what context or situation? ....

....

With which age group(s)? ....

....

Which ideas did you use or adapt? ....

....

....

....

Which ideas did you find least useful? ....

....

....

....

☐ A “Manager” of a youth organisation
○ Local, ○ National or ○ International level

○ Board member ○ Staff ○ Other (please specify) ....

Name of the organisation ....

Which techniques and ideas of the T-kit were more useful for your work? ....

....

....

....

Which were the least useful? ....

....

....

....

☐ None of the above – Please specify ....

What do you think of the overall structure? ....

....

....

What do you think about the layout? ....

Where did you obtain your copy of this *Organisational Management* T-kit? ....

What recommendations or suggestions do you have for future editions? ....

....

....

....

....

Name: ....

Title: ....

Organisation/establishment (if applicable) ....

Your address: ....

....

Phone number: ....

E-mail: ....

Please return this questionnaire by surface mail or e-mail from: **www.training-youth.net**

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Appendix 3

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